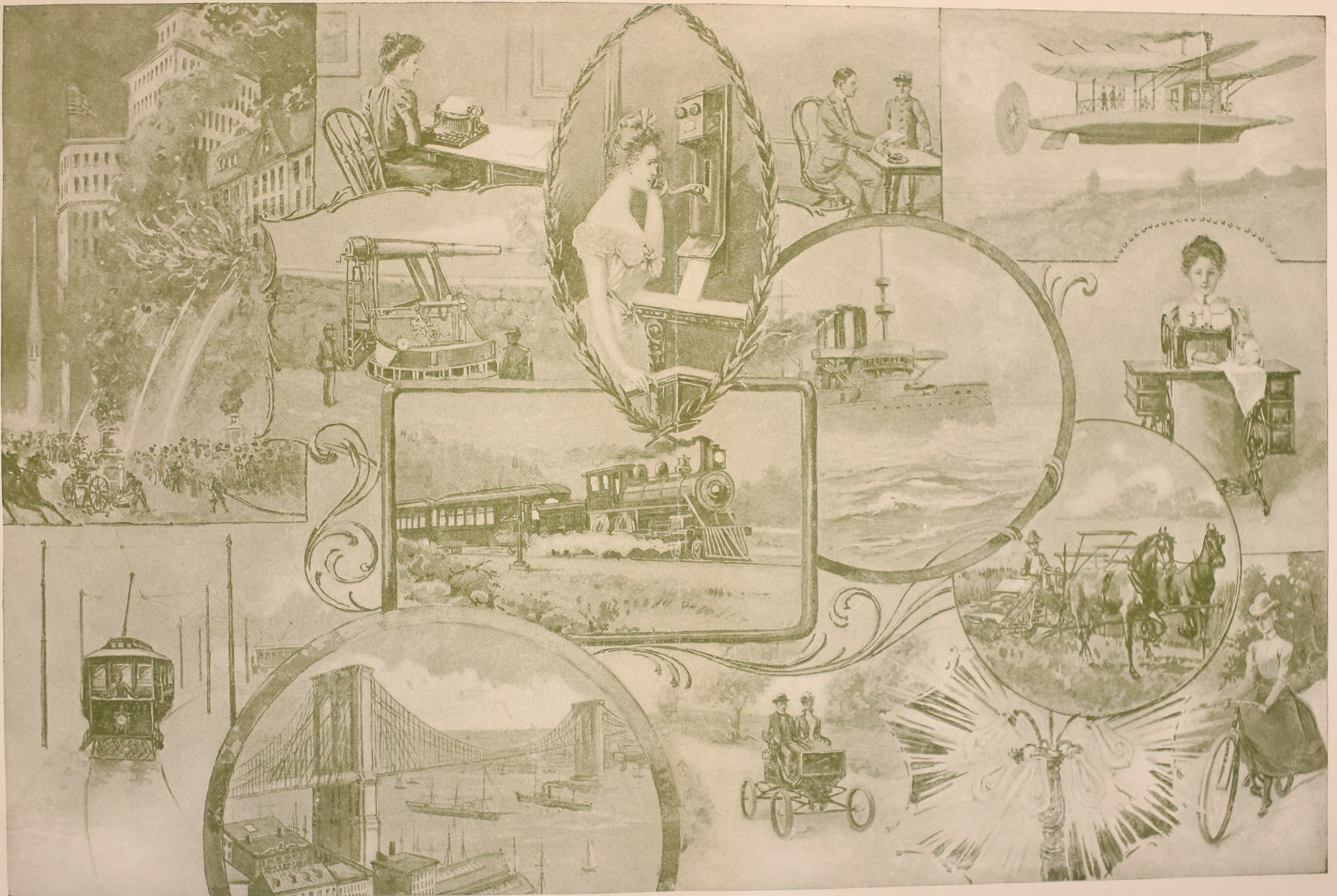


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Story of One Hundred Years

A MATCHLESS RECORD OF THE GREATEST
CENTURY OF HISTORIC TIME.

A Comprehensive Review of the Political and Military Events,
the Social, Intellectual and Material Progress, and
the General State of Mankind in All Lands.

Embodying Detailed and Accurate Accounts of all Things of Importance
and Interest, from 1801 to 1900, Inclusive.



Profusely Illustrated from Historic Paintings and Engravings and from
Special Drawings made expressly for this work.

By DANIEL B. SHEPP,

Author of "Shepp's Photographs of the World," "Shepp's World's Fair Photographed,"
"Shepp's Giant Library," "Shepp's New York City Illustrated," etc., etc.

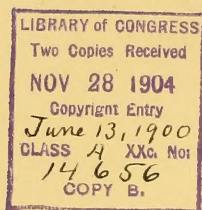
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PREFACE.



FROM 1801 to 1900. It is a small part of the history of the world. It is the merest fraction, insignificant in extent, of the whole story of Time. Yet it surpasses in human interest all that had gone before. It has been well said that the Nineteenth Century is properly to be compared not with any other century but with all other centuries put together. And this estimate does not seem extravagant when we consider the marvelous progress which has been made by man in these one hundred years.

In all the thrilling interest of war and conquest, of heroic achievement, of daring adventure, the Nineteenth Century is more than the peer of any other. In scientific progress it easily outstrips all its eighteen predecessors, and the forty more that preceded them. In literature, music, art, it proves that the former times were not better than the later. And in social advancement, free institutions, elevation of the masses of the people, and general betterment of the condition of humanity, it so far outranks all other centuries as to seem almost an era in a new world.

To tell the story of such an epoch is a task that may well fascinate the fancy and engage the highest endeavors of the historian. In many respects the story can never be fully told, for it is written only upon the hearts and souls of the human race. To tell all that could be told of the Hundred Years, in all its fullness, would require a whole library, and would need a lifetime to read. The present undertaking aims at no such thing as that. It aims at the production of a practical book, which in cost is within the reach of all, and in compass is within the power of all to read, and yet which in scope and detail covers the entire range of the century and includes every fact of real and lasting import.

In performing this task the historian must tell the story of his own land, in its progress from the estate of a puny handful of half-settled States to that of one of the greatest powers on the face of the globe. In so doing he must tell of great foreign and domestic wars, of territorial expansion, and of such inventive and industrial genius as the world has not elsewhere seen. He must tell of the mighty wars of the Old World, of the gradual emancipation of nation after nation from absolutism to

constitutional government. He must tell of the opening of the Dark Continent, and of the lands of Asia, and the settlement of the islands of the sea, and the extension into them of the arts of civilization. The rise and fall of empire, the transforming of the map of the world, are mere incidents in the progress of the mighty drama.

For the proper fulfilment of such a task it is necessary to draw upon all sources of information, to ransack libraries, documents, statistics, and a vast wealth of data wholly inaccessible to the average man; and to glean therefrom the choicest grain of information and place it in practical and attractive form before the reader. The resources of pictorial art are likewise to be utilized, in the securing of present scenes of interest and the reproduction of old ones from the great galleries and treasure houses of art. The labor involved in such an undertaking is enormous. But the satisfaction in achieving it is likewise beyond all estimation.

The work is done, ended with the closing days of the century which it records. It is offered to the reader with an earnest hope that it will be found not unworthy of its exalted theme, and that it will assist the multitudes who may peruse it to form a more adequate estimate of the "closing cycle" than would have been possible without it.



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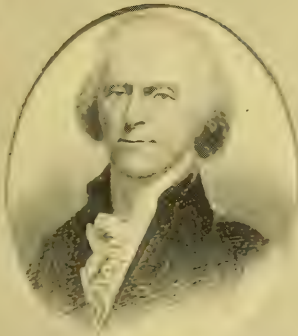
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JAMES MADISON



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS



THOMAS JEFFERSON



MARTIN VAN BUREN



JAMES MONROE



ANDREW JACKSON



WM H HARRISON

1800—PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE 19TH CENTURY



1800—AMERICAN FASHIONS

CHAPTER I

Dawn of the New Century—Washington the National Capital—War with Tripoli—Ohio Admitted to the Union—Duel Between Hamilton and Burr—The Louisiana Purchase—Re-election of Mr. Jefferson—Trouble with England and France—The Embargo—Impressment of Seamen—Chesapeake and Leopard—The First Steamboat—Jefferson's Retirement.

THE dawn of the Nineteenth Century, on January 1, 1801, was marked with no great convulsion of nature or other phenomenon. The processes of the universe maintained their way unmoved. Yet there was ushered in, upon the terrestrial stage, the greatest era of recorded time, and forces were even then at work which were destined speedily to change the political and social face of the globe. Of all the lands of the earth, only two continents were then of marked importance—Europe and North America. South America was slumbering the unquiet sleep of mediæval Spanish tyranny, but on the point of awaking with tremendous energy. Asia was still scarcely touched by the hand of modern progress, and most of its countries were forbidden lands to all outsiders. Africa was emphatically a "Dark Continent;" only a spot here and there and on its extreme borders made the fighting ground of European powers. The islands of the sea were practically unknown.

WASHINGTON THE NATIONAL CAPITAL

In the United States, independence had become an established fact, the Constitution was in full working order, the city of Washington had become the national capital, and the third presidential term, that of John Adams, was drawing to its close. Adams had been betrayed by men of his own party, and his party had been rendered unpopular by its Alien and Sedition laws and other acts. Accordingly a second term had been denied to Mr. Adams, and Thomas Jefferson, his political opponent, had

been elected in his place. This had been effected in a close election Jefferson and Aaron Burr had each received the same number of electoral votes, and the matter had then been referred to Congress, which finally chose Jefferson President and Burr Vice-President. As a sequel to that memorable contest, the Constitution was amended, and the present system of electing President and Vice-President was adopted.

Mr. Jefferson was the leader of what was then called the Republican party, now known as the Democratic, and was popularly regarded as the Apostle of Democracy. He turned his back upon the stateliness and ceremony that had marked the administrations of Washington and Adams, and practiced the utmost simplicity. He would have no ceremonies at the White House, no formal receptions, no invited guests. He would not be called "Your Excellency" or even "The Honorable." Even the title "Mr." was repugnant to him. "Citizen Jefferson" was his favorite appellation. His inauguration was marked with no ceremony, and at the opening of Congress, instead of going before it in person and addressing it, as Washington and Adams had done, he sent it by messenger—a written message—an example which has been invariably followed by all Presidents since.

WAR WITH TRIPOLI.

In his first message to Congress Jefferson called attention to the unjust and insolent demands of the pirate-fostering government of Tripoli upon the United States, and reported that he had sent a naval force to the Mediterranean to resist them. In 1803 a squadron of seven ships was sent thither, of which one of the largest, the "Philadelphia" frigate, ran aground in the harbor of Tripoli and was captured by the Tripolitans. Soon afterward, Lieutenant Stephen Decatur, with seventy-five men in a small vessel which had been taken from the Tripolitans, stealthily entered the harbor in the evening, boarded the "Philadelphia," killed the Tripolitan crew, and set the ship afire. The "Philadelphia" was destroyed, and Decatur and his men made good their escape. In July, 1804, a general attack was made by the American fleet upon Tripoli, in which Decatur again greatly distinguished himself. Further operations checked the piratical zeal of Tripoli, and added great lustre to the American arms.

During Jefferson's administration the United States Military Academy, at West Point, N. Y., was founded, and thus provision was made for the military as well as the naval efficiency of the nation.

OHIO ADMITTED TO THE UNION.

At the beginning of Mr. Jefferson's administration the Union consisted of sixteen States—Vermont, Kentucky and Tennessee having been added to the original thirteen. Early in his administration in 1803, Ohio was admitted as the seventeenth State. A little later the Territory of Michigan was formed, and the way thus opened for the ultimate creation of another State.

Nor was this the only step toward great expansion of the area of the Nation. Early in his first term Jefferson dispatched an expedition, under the lead of Lewis and Clarke, two Virginians, to cross the continent to the Pacific coast, to take possession of the country in the name of the United States. This expedition made its way up the Missouri River, across the Rocky Mountains, and down the Columbia River to the Pacific, reaching the coast in 1805. This led to the establishment, six years later, of John Jacob Astor's fur-trading post at Astoria, and the settlement of the region now forming the States of Oregon and Washington.

DUEL BETWEEN HAMILTON AND BURR.

On July 12, 1804, Alexander Hamilton, probably the greatest statesman the Western Hemisphere has ever produced, died in New York, in consequence of a wound inflicted by Aaron Burr in a duel fought at Hoboken the day before. The two men were political opponents, and their quarrel arose out of a political controversy, in which Burr deemed his ambitious schemes imperilled by Hamilton, and accordingly determined to remove the latter from his path. The result was that the land was plunged into all but universal mourning, and from that moment forward Burr was regarded with general detestation.

Finding himself a political outcast, Burr thereupon played the part of a traitor. Leaguings himself with other unscrupulous, ambitious and discontented men, he formed the scheme of establishing in the southwestern part of this country an Empire of which he should be the head. New Orleans was to be his capital city. He was arrested and tried for treason in 1807, but for lack of technical evidence was not convicted. On his release he went abroad and ended his days in obscurity.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

The great measure of the first term of Mr. Jefferson's administration was the acquisition and annexation to the United States of the great country of Louisiana, which was purchased of France for the sum of \$15,000,000. This country was first colonized by the French in 1699. In 1752, it was ceded by France to Spain, and, in 1800, it was ceded back by Spain to France. Upon receiving intelligence of this intended transfer, great sensibility prevailed in Congress, and a proposition was made to occupy the place by force; but, after an animated discussion, the project was relinquished, and negotiations with France were commenced by Mr. Jefferson for the purchase of the whole country of Louisiana, which ended in an agreement to that effect, signed at Paris, April 30, 1803, by which the United States were to pay France \$15,000,000. Early in December, 1803, the commissioners of Spain delivered possession to France, and, on the 20th of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferred the country to the United States.

RE-ELECTION OF MR. JEFFERSON

In 1805 Mr. Jefferson was elected a second time to the office of President. The electoral votes were 176, of which he received 162. George Clinton was chosen Vice-President.

At the time when Mr. Jefferson was raised to the presidency, the state of the country was highly prosperous, and it so continued during his first presidential term. The conflicts between the two great political parties, which had greatly agitated the country during the preceding administration, still continued; but the party which sustained Mr. Jefferson increased in strength to such a degree that he was re-elected by an almost unanimous vote.

TROUBLE WITH ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

The war which had for a number of years been raging between Great Britain and France had involved nearly all the nations of Europe. America endeavored to maintain a neutrality towards the belligerents, and peaceably to carry on a commerce with them. Being the great neutral trader, she had an interest in extending the privileges of neutrality, which the belligerents, on the contrary, were inclined to contract within the narrowest limits. In April, 1806, the British ship "Leander"

fired upon the American coaster "Richard," off Sandy Hook, killing the helmsman. This incident added much to the strain upon relations between the two countries. In May, 1806, the British Government declared all the ports and rivers, from the Elbe in Germany to Brest in France, to be blockaded, and all American vessels, trading with these interdicted ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation. In the ensuing November, 1806, the Emperor of France issued his Berlin Decree, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade, and prohibiting all intercourse with them. Next followed, in November, 1807, the British Orders in Council, by which all neutral vessels, trading with France, were compelled to stop at a British port and pay a duty. In consequence of this measure, Bonaparte issued, in December, 1807, the Milan Decree, by which every vessel which should submit to British search, or consent to any pecuniary exactions whatever, was confiscated.

THE EMBARGO.

In the same month (December, 1807), on the recommendation of Mr. Jefferson, Congress laid an embargo on all the shipping of the United States. This measure was designed to retaliate on both England and France, and also to put the United States in a better state of defence, by retaining their vessels and seamen at home; but, inasmuch as it annihilated all foreign commerce, it operated with great severity on the interests of the people, and became unpopular; and in March, 1809, the embargo was removed, and non-intercourse with France and Great Britain was substituted.

While matters continued in this state, new causes of provocation continually occurred. The trade of the United States was harassed by both of the belligerents; and the government was accused in Britain of partiality to France, and in France of pusillanimously submitting to the insults of Britain.

IMPRESSMENT OF SEAMEN.

But one species of injury, which was keenly felt and loudly complained of in this country, the United States suffered exclusively from Britain. This was the impressment of her seamen, on board the American vessels, by British men-of-war. The similarity of language renders it difficult to distinguish American from British seamen; but there is reason to believe, that, on some occasions, the British officers were not

anxious to make the distinction, being determined, at all hazards, to procure men; and American seamen were compelled to serve in the British navy and fight the battles of Britain.

The British, on the other hand, complained that their seamen escaped on board American vessels, to which they were encouraged, and where they were carefully concealed; and they contended for the right of searching American merchant vessels for their own runaway seamen. This custom had been long practiced; was a fruitful source of irritation and was submitted to, with extreme reluctance, on the part of the Americans, who maintained that, under British naval officers, it was often conducted in the most arbitrary manner, with little regard to the feelings of those against whom it was enforced; and that, under the color of this search, native seamen were frequently dragged on board British vessels.

CHESAPEAKE AND LEOPARD.

The custom of searching for British seamen had hitherto been confined to private vessels, but, in 1807, it was ascertained that four seamen had deserted from the British service, and entered on board the "Chesapeake," an American frigate, commanded by Commodore Barron, and carrying 36 guns. Captain Humphreys, of the "Leopard," an English frigate of 50 guns, in compliance with the orders of Admiral Berkeley, followed the "Chesapeake" beyond the Capes of Virginia, and, after demanding the deserters, fired a broadside upon the American frigate, and killed and wounded about 20 men. The "Chesapeake" struck her colors, and the four seamen were given up.

This outrage occasioned a general indignation throughout the country, and was deemed, by many, in conjunction with other causes, a sufficient ground for declaring war. The President issued a proclamation, ordering all British vessels of war to quit the waters of the United States, and forbidding all intercourse between them and the inhabitants. The British government disavowed the attack on the "Chesapeake;" yet the measures taken with regard to the affair were far from being satisfactory to the government of this country.

THE FIRST STEAMBOAT.

During Jefferson's administration, steps were taken for the material enlargement of the army and navy to meet the troublous times which

were plainly to be foreseen. There occurred, also, an incident which was full of meaning and promise for the future of not only the navy but the mercantile marine and the whole world of commerce. This was the completion of Robert Fulton's first steamboat, the "Clermont," and its successful trial trip upon the Hudson River. People traveled far to see the mysterious vessel, as it puffed fire and smoke, and moved through the water against wind and tide, without sail, paddle, or oar. Great activity in steamboat building followed. The "Phoenix," another paddle-wheel boat, built by John Stevens, was put upon the Delaware in 1808. The "Orleans," with a stern wheel, the first steamboat on the Mississippi, went from Pittsburg, where she was built, to New Orleans in fourteen days in 1812.

JEFFERSON'S RETIREMENT.

As his second term in the White House drew to a close, and the time came for the election of another President, Mr. Jefferson signified his determination to follow and confirm the example of Washington, by retiring to private life at the expiration of his second term. "Never did a prisoner," said he, "released from his chains, feel such relief as I shall, on shaking off the shackles of power. I thank God for the opportunity of retiring from them without censure, and carrying with me the most constant proofs of public approbation. I leave everything in the hands of men so able to take care of them, that, if we are destined to meet misfortunes, it will be because no human wisdom could avert them." James Madison was chosen his successor, and George Clinton re-elected Vice-President.

CHAPTER II.

The Napoleonic Wars—Copenhagen—Alexandria—Reconstruction of France—War Renewed—England Threatened with Invasion—Emmett's Rebellion—Napoleon Made Emperor—Ulm, Trafalgar and Austerlitz—Changing the Map of Europe—Jena and Auerstadt—Friedland—The Peninsular War—French Troops in Madrid—Victories of Napoleon.

THE Nineteenth Century opened in Europe in the midst of the era of Napoleonic wars. Napoleon Bonaparte, then Consul of France and soon to be Emperor, had, under the peace of Luneville, been successfully planning a union of the northern powers against England. On December 16, 1800, accordingly, a maritime confederacy was signed by Russia, Sweden and Denmark, and soon after by Prussia, as an acceding party. This league, aimed principally against England, was designed to protect the commerce of the northern powers on principles similar to the armed neutrality of 1780; but its effect would have been, if correctly carried out, to deprive England, in great part, of her naval superiority. The Danish government had previously ordered her armed vessels to resist the search of British cruisers, and the Russian Emperor had issued an embargo on all the British ships in his harbors.

COPENHAGEN.

England, determined to anticipate her enemies, despatched, as soon as possible, a powerful fleet to the Baltic, under the command of Nelson and Sir Hyde Parker. Passing through the Sound, under the fire of the Danish batteries, on the 30th of March, the fleet came to anchor opposite the harbor of Copenhagen, which was protected by an imposing array of forts, men-of-war, fire ships and floating batteries. On the 2d of April Nelson brought his ships into the harbor, where, in a space not exceeding a mile and a half in extent, they were received by a tremendous fire from more than 2000 cannons. The English replied with equal

spirit, and after four hours of incessant cannonade the whole front line of Danish vessels and floating batteries was silenced, with a loss to the Danes of more than 6000 men. The English loss was 1200. Of this battle Nelson said, "I have been in 105 engagements, but that of Copenhagen was the most terrible of them all."

While Nelson was preparing to follow up his success by attacking the Russian fleet in the Baltic, news reached him of an event at St. Petersburg which changed the whole current of Northern policy. A conspiracy of Russian noblemen was formed against the Emperor Paul, who was strangled in his chamber on the night of the 24th of March. His son and successor, Alexander, at once resolved to abandon the confederacy, and to cultivate the friendship of Great Britain. Sweden, Denmark and Prussia followed his example; and thus was dissolved, in less than six months after it had been formed, the League of the North—the most formidable confederacy ever arrayed against the maritime power of England.

ALEXANDRIA.

While these events were transpiring in Europe, the army which Napoleon had left in Egypt under the command of Kleber, after losing its leader by the hands of an obscure assassin, was doomed to yield to an English force sent out under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who fell at the head of his victorious columns on the plains of Alexandria. By the terms of capitulation the French troops, to the number of 24,000, were conveyed to France with their arms, baggage and artillery. As Malta had previously surrendered to the British, there was now little left to contend for between France and England. To the great joy of both nations preliminaries of peace were signed at London on the 1st of October, and on the 27th of March, 1802, tranquillity was restored throughout Europe by the definite treaty of Amiens.

RECONSTRUCTION OF FRANCE.

Napoleon now directed all his energies to the reconstruction of society in France, the general improvement of the country, and the consolidation of the power he had acquired. By a general amnesty one hundred thousand emigrants were enabled to return; the Roman Catholic religion was restored, to the discontent of the Parisians, but to the great joy of the rural population; a system of public instruction was

established under the auspices of the government ; to bring back that gradation of rank in society that the Revolution had overthrown, the Legion of Honor was instituted, an order of nobility founded on personal merit ; great public works were set on foot throughout France ; the collection of the heterogeneous laws of the Monarchy and the Republic into one consistent whole, under the title of the Code Napoleon, was commenced, an undertaking which has deservedly covered the name of Napoleon with glory, and survived all the other achievements of his genius ; and finally the French nation, as a permanent pledge of their confidence, by an almost unanimous vote, conferred upon their favorite and idol the title and authority of consul for life.

In his relations with foreign states the conduct of Napoleon was less honorable. He arbitrarily established a government in Holland, entirely subservient to his will ; and he moulded the northern Italian republics at his pleasure ; he interfered in the dissensions of the Swiss cantons to establish a government in harmony with the monarchical institutions which he was introducing in Paris, and when the Swiss resisted he sent Ney at the head of twenty thousand men to enforce obedience. England remonstrated in vain, and the Swiss, in despair, submitted to the yoke imposed upon them. Napoleon was less successful in an attempt to recover the island of St. Domingo, which had revolted from French authority. Forces to the number of 35,000 men were sent out to reduce the island, and the patriot Toussaint l'Ouverture was betrayed to his death, but nearly all the French troops perished—victims of fatigue, disease, and the perfidy of their own government.

WAR RENEWED.

It soon became evident that the peace of Amiens could not be permanent. The encroachments of France upon the feebler European powers, the armed occupation of Holland, the great accumulations of troops on the shores of the British Channel, and the evident designs of Napoleon upon Egypt, excited the jealousy of England, and the latter refused to evacuate Malta, Alexandria and the Cape of Good Hope, in accordance with the late treaty stipulations, until satisfactory explanations should be given by the French government. Bitter recriminations followed on both sides, and in the month of May, 1803, the cabinet of London issued letters of marque and an embargo on all French vessels

in British ports. Napoleon retaliated by ordering the arrest of all the English then in France between the ages of eighteen and sixty years.

ENGLAND THREATENED WITH INVASION.

The first military operations of the French were rapid and successful. The electorate of Hanover, a dependency of England, was quickly conquered, and in utter disregard of neutral rights the whole of the north of Germany was at once occupied by French troops, while simultaneously an army was sent into southern Italy to take possession of the Neapolitan territories. But these movements were insignificant when compared with Napoleon's gigantic preparations ostensibly for the invasion of England. Forts and batteries were constructed on every headland and accessible point of the channel; the number of vessels and small craft assembled along the coast was immense; and the fleets of France, Holland and Spain were to aid in the enterprise. England made the most vigorous preparations for repelling the anticipated invasion, which, however, was not attempted, and perhaps never seriously intended.

EMMETT'S REBELLION.

The year of the renewal of the war was further distinguished by an unhappy attempt at rebellion in Ireland against the union of Ireland with Great Britain, which had been effected at the beginning of the century. The leaders, Russell and Emmett, were seized, brought to trial, and executed. Early in the following year, 1804, a conspiracy against the power of Napoleon was detected in which the generals, Moreau and Pichegru, and the royalist leader, Georges, were implicated. Moreau was allowed to leave the country, Pichegru was found strangled in prison and Georges was executed. Napoleon, either believing, or affecting to believe, that the young Duke D'Enghien, a Bourbon prince, then living in the neutral territory of Baden, was concerned in this plot, caused him to be seized and hurried to Vincennes, where, after a mock trial, he was shot by the sentence of a court-martial, an act which has fixed an indelible stain on the memory of Napoleon, as not the slightest evidence of criminality was brought against the unhappy prince.

Owing to the intimate connection that had been formed between the courts of Paris and Madrid, England sent out a fleet in the autumn of 1804, before any declaration of war had been made, to interrupt the

homeward-bound treasure frigates of Spain ; and these were captured, with valuable treasure amounting to more than two million pounds sterling. The British government was severely censured for this hasty act. Spain now openly joined France and declared war against England.

NAPOLEON MADE EMPEROR.

On the 18th of May of this year Napoleon was created, by decree of the Senate, Emperor of the French, and on the 2d of December, 1804, was solemnly crowned by the Pope, who had been induced to come to Paris for that purpose. The principal powers of Europe, with the exception of Great Britain, recognized the new sovereign. On the 26th of May of the following year he was formally anointed sovereign of Northern Italy. The iron crown of Charlemagne, which had quietly reposed a thousand years, was brought forward to give interest to the ceremony, and Napoleon placed it on his own head, at the same time pronouncing the words, "God hath given it to me ; beware of touching it."

The continued usurpations charged upon Napoleon at length induced the Northern Powers to listen to the solicitations of England ; and in the summer of 1805 a new coalition, embracing Russia, Austria and Sweden, was formed against France. Prussia, tempted by the glittering prize of Hanover, which Napoleon held out to her, persisted in her neutrality, with an evident leaning towards the French interest. The Austrian Emperor precipitately commenced the war by invading the neutral territory of Bavaria, an act as unjustifiable as any of which he accused Napoleon. The latter seized the opportunity of branding his enemies as aggressors in the contest, and declared himself the protector of the liberties of Europe.

ULM, TRAFALGAR AND AUSTERLITZ.

In the latter part of September, 1805, the French forces, in eight divisions, and numbering 180,000 men, were on the banks of the Rhine, preparing to carry the war into Austria. The advance of Napoleon was rapid, and everywhere the enemy was driven before him. On the 20th of October Napoleon, having surrounded the Austrian general, Mack, at Ulm, compelled him to surrender his whole force of 20,000 men. On the very next day, however, the English fleet, commanded by Admiral

Nelson, gained a great naval victory off Cape Trafalgar, over the combined fleets of France and Spain ; but it was dearly purchased by the death of the hero. On the 13th of November Napoleon entered Vienna, and on the 2d of December he gained the great battle of Austerlitz, the most glorious of all his victories, which resulted in the total overthrow of the combined Russian and Austrian armies, and enabled the victor to dictate peace on his own terms. The Emperor of Russia, who was not a party to the treaty, withdrew his troops into his own territories ; the King of Prussia received Hanover as a reward of his neutrality ; and Great Britain alone remained at open war with France.

CHANGING THE MAP OF EUROPE.

While the English now prosecuted the war with vigor on the ocean, humbled the Mahratta powers in India, subdued the Dutch colony of the Cape and took Buenos Ayres from the Spaniards, Napoleon rapidly extended his supremacy over the continent of Europe. In February, 1806, he sent an army to take possession of Naples, because the king, instigated by his queen, an Austrian princess, had received an army of Russians and English into his capital. The king of Naples fled to Sicily, and Napoleon conferred the vacant crown upon his brother Joseph. Napoleon next placed his brother Louis on the throne of Holland ; he erected various districts in Germany and Italy into dukedoms, which he bestowed on his principal marshals, while fourteen princes in the south and west of Germany were induced to form the Confederation of the Rhine and place themselves under the protection of France. By this latter stroke of policy on the part of Napoleon a population of sixteen millions was cut off from the Germanic dominion of Austria.

In the negotiations which Napoleon was at this time carrying on with England, propositions were made for the restoration of Hanover to that power, although it had recently been given to Prussia. It was, moreover, suspected that Napoleon had offered to win the favor of Russia at the expense of his Prussian ally. These and other causes aroused the indignation of the Prussians, and the Prussian monarch openly joined the coalition against Napoleon before his own arrangements were completed or his allies could yield him any assistance. Both England and Russia had promised him their co-operation.

JENA AND AUERSTADT.

With his usual promptitude Napoleon put his troops in motion, and on the 8th of October reached the advanced Prussian outposts. On the 14th he routed the Prussians with terrible slaughter in the battle of Jena, and on the same day Marshal Davoust gained the battle of Auerstadt, in which the Duke of Brunswick was mortally wounded. On these two fields the loss of the Prussians was nearly 20,000 in killed and wounded, besides nearly as many prisoners. The total loss of the French was 14,000. In a single day the strength of the Prussian monarchy was prostrated. Napoleon rapidly followed up his victories, and on the 25th his vanguard, under Marshal Davoust, entered Berlin, only a fortnight after the commencement of hostilities.

Encouraged by his successes, Napoleon issued a series of edicts from Berlin, declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade and excluding British manufacturers from all the continental ports. He then pursued the Russians into Poland; on the 30th of November his troops entered Warsaw without resistance, but on the 26th of December his advanced forces received a check in the severe battle of Pultusk. On the 8th of February, 1807, a sanguinary battle was fought at Eylau, in which each side lost 20,000 men, and both claimed the victory. In some minor engagements the allies had the advantage, but these were more than counterbalanced by the siege and fall of the important fortress of Dantzic, which had a garrison of 17,000 men, and was defended by 900 cannon.

FRIEDLAND.

At length, on the 14th of June, Napoleon fought the great and decisive battle of Friedland, and the broken remains of the Russian army fell back upon the Niemen. An armistice was now agreed to; on the 25th of June the emperors of France and Russia met for the first time, with great pomp and ceremony, on a raft in the middle of the Niemen, and on the 7th of July signed the treaty of Tilsit. All sacrifices were made at the expense of the Prussian monarch, who received back only about one-half of his dominions. The elector of Saxony, the ally of France, was rewarded with that portion of the Prussian territory which, prior to the first partition in 1772, formed part of the kingdom of Poland; this portion was now erected into the grand-duchy of Warsaw. Out of another portion was formed the kingdom of Westphalia, which

was bestowed upon Jerome Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon; and Russia agreed to aid the French emperor in his designs against British commerce.

Soon after the treaty of Tilsit it became evident to England that Napoleon would leave no means untried to humble that power on the ocean, and it was believed that, with the connivance of Russia, he was making arrangements with Denmark and Portugal for the conversion of their fleets to his purposes. England, menaced with an attack from the combined navies of Europe, but resolving to anticipate the blow, sent a powerful squadron against Denmark, with an imperious demand for the instant surrender of the Danish fleet and naval stores, to be held as pledges until the conclusion of the war. A refusal to comply with this summons was followed by a four-days' bombardment of Copenhagen and the final surrender of the fleet. Denmark, though deprived of her navy, resented the hostility of England by throwing herself, without reserve, into the arms of France. The navy of Portugal was saved from falling into the power of France by sailing, at the instigation of the British, to Rio Janeiro, the capital of the Portuguese colony of Brazil. Napoleon had already announced, in one of his imperial edicts, that "the House of Braganza had ceased to reign," and had sent an army under Junot to occupy Portugal. On the 27th of November the Portuguese fleet, bearing the prince regent, the queen and court, sailed for Brazil; and on the 30th the French took possession of Lisbon.

THE PENINSULAR WAR.

The designs of Napoleon for the dethronement of the Peninsular monarchs had been approved by Alexander in the conferences of Tilsit; and when Napoleon returned to Paris he set on foot a series of intrigues at Madrid, which soon gave him an opportunity of interfering in the domestic affairs of the Spanish nation, his recent ally. Charles IV of Spain, a weak monarch, was the dupe of his faithless wife and of his unprincipled minister, Godoy. The latter, secured in the French interest by the pretended gift of a principality formed out of dismembered Portugal, allowed the French troops under Murat to enter Spain, and by fraud and false pretences the frontier fortresses were soon in the hands of the invaders. Too late Godoy found himself the dupe of his own treachery. Charles, intimidated by the difficulties of his situation.

resigned the crown to his son Ferdinand, but, by French intrigues, was soon after induced to disavow his abdication, while at the same time Ferdinand was led to expect a recognition of his royal title from the Emperor Napoleon. The deluded prince and his father were both enticed to Bayonne, where they met Napoleon, who soon compelled both to abdicate, and gave the crown to his brother Joseph, who had been summoned from the kingdom of Naples to become king of Spain. The Neapolitan kingdom was bestowed upon Murat as a reward for his military services.

Although many of the Spanish nobility tamely acquiesced in this foreign usurpation of the sovereignty of the kingdom, yet the great bulk of the nation rose in arms; Ferdinand, although a prisoner in France, was proclaimed king; a national junta, or council, was chosen to direct the affairs of the government; and the English at once sent large supplies of arms and ammunition to their new allies, while Napoleon was preparing an overwhelming force to sustain his usurpation. A new direction was thus given to affairs, and for a time the European war centered in the Spanish Peninsula.

FRENCH TROOPS IN MADRID.

In the first contests with the invaders the Spaniards were generally successful. A French squadron in the Bay of Cadiz, prevented from escaping by the presence of an English fleet, was forced to surrender; Marshal Moncey, at the head of 8000 men, was repulsed in an attack on the city of Valencia; Saragossa, defended by the heroic Palafox, sustained a siege of sixty-three days, and, although reduced to a heap of ruins, drove the French troops from its walls; Cordova was indeed taken and plundered by the French marshal Dupont, yet that officer himself was soon after compelled to surrender at Baylen, with 8000 men, to the patriot general Castanos. This latter event occurred on the 20th of July, the very day on which Joseph Bonaparte made his triumphal entry into Madrid. But the new king himself was soon obliged to flee, and the French forces were driven beyond the Ebro.

In the meantime the spirit of resistance had extended to Portugal; a junta had been established at Oporto to conduct the government; British troops were sent to aid the insurgents, and on the 21st of August Marshal Junot was defeated at Vimiera by Sir Arthur Wellesley. This



1804—FIRST BALLOON RAISED IN THE UNITED STATES



1804—DUEL BETWEEN ALEXANDER HAMILTON AND AARON BURR

battle was followed by the convention of Cintra, which led to the evacuation of Portugal by the French forces.

VICTORIES OF NAPOLEON.

Great was the mortification of Napoleon at this inauspicious beginning of the Peninsular war, and he deemed it necessary to take the field in person. Collecting his troops with the greatest rapidity, in the early part of November he was in the north of Spain at the head of 180,000 men. He at once communicated his own energy to the operations of the army; the Spaniards were severely defeated at Reynosa, Burgos and Tudela, and on the 4th of December Napoleon forced an entrance into the capital. The British troops, who were marching to the assistance of the Spaniards, were driven back upon Corunna, and being there attacked while making preparations to embark, they compelled the enemy to retire, but their brave commander, Sir John Moore, was mortally wounded. On the following day the British abandoned the shores of Spain, and the possession of the country seemed assured to the French Emperor. In the meantime difficulties had arisen between the French Emperor and the Pope Pius VII; French troops entered Rome, and by a decree of Napoleon the Papal States were annexed to the French Empire. This was followed by a bill of excommunication against Napoleon, whereupon the Pope was seized and conveyed a prisoner into France, where he was detained until the spring of 1814.

Other events that deserve notice were the conquest and annexation of Georgia by Russia in 1801, the independence of Hayti in 1803, the assumption of the title of Emperor by the sovereign of Austria, the death of Pitt in 1806, the formal end of the Holy Roman Empire in 1806, Great Britain's abolition of the slave trade in 1807, and Russia's conquest of Finland in 1808.

CHAPTER III.

General Progress of the World—Independence of Hayti—Seizure of Toussaint—Bloody Independence—King Henry—Peruvian Revolution—Buenos Ayres—Disaster to the British—Storming of Buenos Ayres—Moving for Independence—Civil Dissensions—Success of the Revolution—Other Countries Revolt—Colombian Independence—Science and Literature—American Literature.

THE world at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century was in a transition state. Revolutionary impulses prevailed in politics, and in science and art men were just upon the verge of wonderful achievements, of which the first premonitions were beginning to be appreciated. In electricity the discoveries of Franklin, Volta and Galvani had startled the world. Lagrange and Laplace had developed mathematical analysis. Zoology and geology had been erected into definite sciences by Buffon. Linnæus had done the same for botany. Lavoisier had laid the rudiments of the vast structure of the chemical sciences. Jenner had invented vaccination. The Montgolfiers had made the first balloon. Cook, Bougainville and La Perouse had carried on the work of the great navigators of earlier centuries, and had filled up most of the blank spaces on the map of the world. In literature it was a time of great activity, and the beginning of one of the most glorious eras in history.

INDEPENDENCE OF HAYTI.

The early years of the century saw a general movement among the minor states of the Western Hemisphere to throw off the yoke of European rule. Among the first of these was Hayti, where the negroes were under the lead of Toussaint l'Ouverture. This famous man was born a slave, and continued so for nearly fifty years. When the insurrection broke out he refused to join in it, and assisted in procuring his master a passage to the United States. After this he joined the French forces

and rose by successive steps to the rank of brigadier-general. He obtained such influence that all the proceedings of the French commissioners were directed by him. The Directory at Paris became jealous of him, and sent out General Hedouville to observe his conduct and restrain his ambition. Toussaint, however, refused to submit to his management. Bonaparte, on becoming first consul, confirmed him as commander-in-chief, and Toussaint succeeded in freeing the island from the English. He introduced order and discipline into the government, and under his sway the colony advanced, as if by enchantment, towards its ancient splendor. The lands were again put under cultivation ; all the people appeared to be happy, and considered Toussaint as their guardian angel ; both blacks and whites regarded him with esteem and confidence.

The general enthusiasm which he had excited was sufficient to instil vanity into the strongest mind, and he had some excuse for saying he was the Bonaparte of St. Domingo ! He had in early life stored his memory with an incoherent jumble of Latin phrases from the psalter, of which he made a whimsical use after his elevation. Sometimes a negro or mulatto would apply to be made a magistrate or judge. "Certainly," he would reply, "you understand Latin, of course?" "No, General." "How!—wish to be a magistrate and not know Latin!" And then he would pour forth a torrent of Latin jargon, which sent the sable candidate away with the opinion that the general was a most portentous scholar.

SEIZURE OF TOUSSAINT.

The prosperity of the colony was, unfortunately, of short continuance. After the peace of Amiens, Bonaparte, urged on by the expelled planters and mercantile speculators, determined to recover the colony, reinstate the former proprietors and subjugate the emancipated slaves. For this purpose he dispatched his brother-in-law, General Le Clerc, with a force of 25,000 men. On the appearance of the fleet in the Bay of Samana, Toussaint exclaimed, "We shall all perish ; all France is come to St. Domingo." The army landed and several desperate battles were fought. Le Clerc at last found himself under the necessity of proclaiming liberty and equality to all the inhabitants, with the reservation, however, of the approval of the French government. The negroes, tired of the war, deserted their leaders, and a treaty of peace was concluded, by

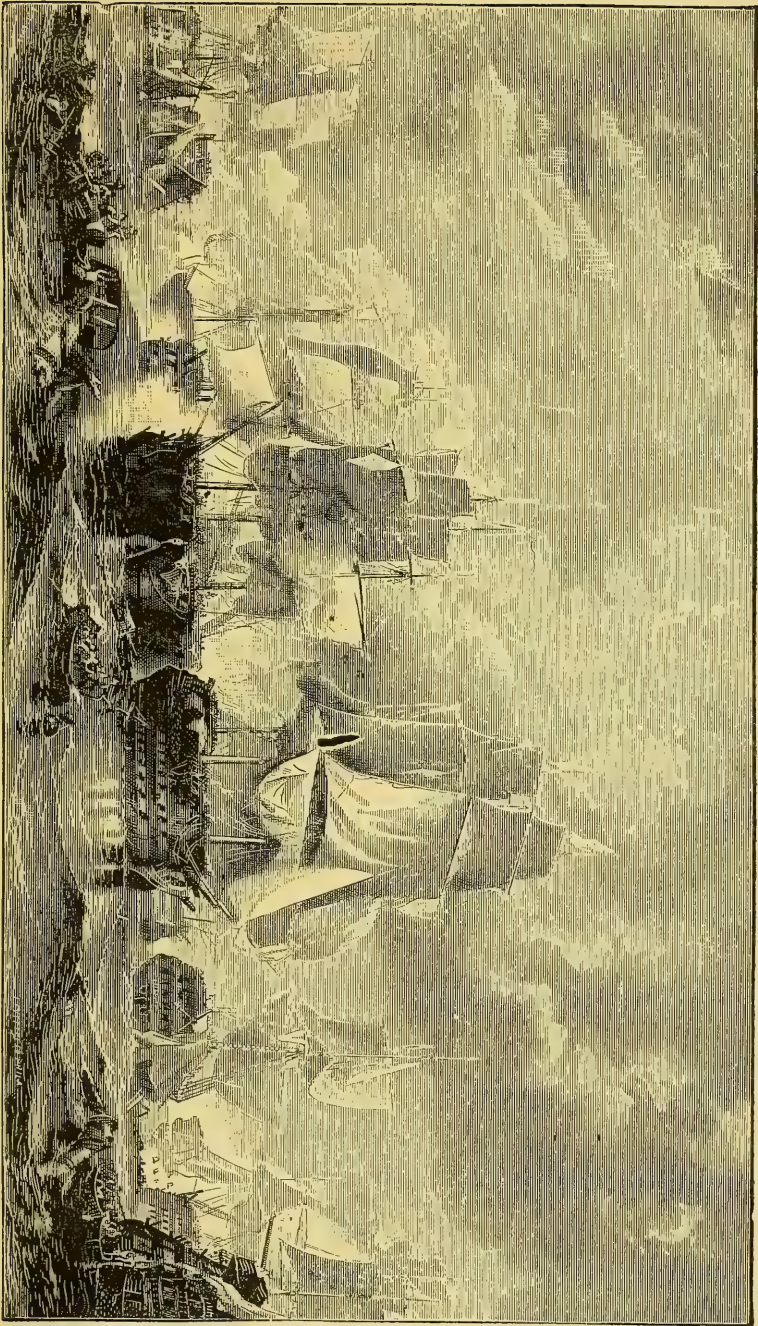
which the sovereignty of France over the island was acknowledged and a general amnesty granted. In direct violation of this agreement Tous-saint was seized by Le Clerc and carried to France, where he died in prison.

This outrage on the person of their favorite chief exasperated the blacks to a high degree. They flew to arms and organized themselves under leaders, among whom Dessalines and Christophe soon became conspicuous. They spread slaughter and devastation among the French, who could offer little resistance against them on account of the excessive heat of the summer—1802. Le Clerc and most of his officers were attacked by sickness, and all the reinforcements sent from France suffered successively from the pestilence. Yet they continued to practice great barbarities towards the unfortunate blacks. In the midst of these scenes of horror Le Clerc died, and the command devolved on General Rochambeau, who fought several battles with varied success; but the losses sustained in these actions, added to disease, reduced the French to the necessity of shutting themselves up in their strongholds, while the blacks were daily increasing in number and confidence. By the end of the year 1802 no less than 40,000 Frenchmen had perished.

Dessalines, now commander-in-chief of the negro army, advanced to the plain of Cape Francois, to besiege the French in their headquarters. A bloody battle followed, in which neither could claim the victory. The French were said to have tortured their prisoners and then put to death 500 of them. Dessalines, hearing of this, caused 500 gibbets to be erected, and after selecting all the French officers, made up the number out of the other prisoners, and hung them up at break of day in sight of the French army. The misery of the French was completed by the breaking out of the war with England in 1803. A British squadron blockaded Cape Francois; the town was reduced by famine, and Rochambeau surrendered at the end of the year.

BLOODY INDEPENDENCE.

On the 1st of January, 1804, the independence of the island was formally proclaimed, and it resumed its aboriginal name of Hayti. Jean Jacques Dessalines was appointed Governor-General for life. His first act was to encourage the return of those blacks who had taken refuge in the United States. He next excited the people to a horrible massacre



1805—BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR



1806—FULTON'S FIRST STEAMBOAT ON THE SEINE, PARIS

of the whites, which took place on the 28th of April. By a series of cruelties and perfidies he got rid of all whom he conceived to be his enemies, and on the 8th of October, 1804, procured a Capuchin missionary to crown him Emperor, by the name of Jacques I. On this occasion he signed a constitution declaring the Empire of Hayti to be a free, sovereign and independent state. It proclaimed the abolition of slavery, the equality of rank, the equal operation of the laws, the inviolability of property, etc. Under this government the island rapidly advanced to prosperity. Dessalines, though a cruel and sanguinary tyrant, was not without skill in the art of government. When Emperor, he appointed his ancient master to the office of butler to his household, which he said was precisely what the old man wished for, as his love for wine made up for the abstemiousness of Dessalines, who drank only water.

KING HENRY.

Dessalines closed his bloody career on the 17th of October, 1806, being assassinated by the mulatto soldiers of Petion. At his death Christophe was called to the head of the government, and a constitution projected which should guarantee the safety of persons and property. A proclamation was issued denouncing the crimes of which Dessalines had been guilty, and, among other things, accused him of having robbed the public treasury of \$20,000 for each of his twenty mistresses. Christophe, however, deplored the fate of Dessalines, and affirmed that he had been put to death by the mulattoes without inquiry into his conduct. The blacks, always jealous of the mulattoes, attacked Petion, who with his adherents escaped into the southern and western districts, where a new constitution was prepared, and on the 27th of December, 1806, Petion was proclaimed President of the Republic of Hayti. A civil war now sprang up between the partisans of the two chiefs, until at length, by a sort of tacit agreement, the mulatto President fixed himself in the south and west, while Christophe established himself in the north, where, on the 2d of June, 1811, the royal crown was placed on his head and he was proclaimed Henry I, King of Hayti.

King Henry established his court and government in all the pomp of a European monarchy. He maintained an army of 25,000 men. He created orders of nobility, with princes, dukes, earls, barons and chevaliers, knights of the grand cross, etc. He set up a sort of feudal

system, partitioning out the vacant lands among his retainers. He founded a royal college, established schools, endowed an academy for music and painting, built a theatre, patronized the arts, and encouraged magnificence in dress. He was born a slave in the island of St. Christopher's, from whence he took his original name; yet his literary acquirements were respectable, and he spoke French and English well. The country prospered under his administration, and for a time he ruled in tranquillity.

PERUVIAN REVOLUTION.

In Peru the movement against Spain soon began. As early as 1805 Ubalde, an eminent jurist of Cuzco, excited the alarm of the government by his revolutionary designs. He gained a large party of adherents, but before their schemes could be put in operation, they were betrayed. Ubalde and eight others were put to death at Cuzco, and more than a hundred of his party were exiled. The particulars of this plot are not distinctly known, but independence was the main object. Ubalde on the scaffold predicted that the Spanish dominion in South America would soon be overthrown. It was impossible that he could, at this early period, have foreseen the occurrences in Spain, which shortly after paved the way for the emancipation of the Spanish American colonies; and his dying declaration affords us reason to believe that the project of throwing off the yoke of the mother country had been cherished in Peru to a greater extent than has generally been imagined.

BUENOS AYRES.

The revolution in the countries bordering on the Rio de la Plata had its origin in the war between Great Britain and Spain. A British fleet and army, under Commodore Popham and General Beresford, which had been despatched against the Cape of Good Hope, after effecting the conquest of that colony, proceeded to Buenos Ayres, in 1806, and on the 8th of June arrived in the mouth of the river La Plata. A general consternation seized the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres when the squadron appeared in sight of that city. Not more than 300 muskets could be found for the defence of the place, and these the inhabitants had not the skill to use. A show of defence was attempted by the viceroy, but the only military movement was made by a single troop of cavalry, who undertook to harass the British army of 2000 men, on their

march to Buenos Ayres. The viceroy, panic-struck, fled for safety to Cordova, and the British took possession of Buenos Ayres on the 28th of June.

The Spaniards, when the first moments of panic were over, appeared to rouse as from a dream or lethargy, and exhibited a degree of energy and resolution which astonished their enemies. Inflamed with indignation at the unmanly conduct of their leader, and chagrined at seeing foreigners in possession of their capital, they began to meditate upon the means of driving them out of the country. An active and resolute leader was found in Liniers, a French officer in the Spanish service. He exerted himself with great industry in the districts north of the river in collecting and arming the people. A secret correspondence was set on foot between him and certain persons within the city. Arms were distributed and secreted in Buenos Ayres, and a regular insurrection organized under the guidance of Puyrredon, a magistrate, and a person of great talent and address.

DISASTER TO THE BRITISH.

Liniers having collected a considerable force at Colonia, opposite the city, the British attempted to drive him from this post, but without success, and on the 1st of August Liniers crossed the river with his whole army and marched to the attack of the city.

On the morning of the 12th the combined attack began. The British occupied the castle and great square, and planted their cannon towards the principal streets which led to those points. The Spaniards advanced with their artillery along the avenues, while the roofs of the houses were covered with musketeers, who could pour their fire upon all below without any hazard to themselves. The attacking columns in the streets were repeatedly checked in their advance, but the fire from the house-tops made dreadful havoc and threatened the British with utter destruction. The British commander had now no choice but to surrender or see his army slaughtered to the last man. A capitulation was therefore proposed, and immediately accepted; the whole army surrendered prisoners.

STORMING BUENOS AYRES.

The squadron, however, continued in the river, and being shortly after reinforced, made an attempt on Monte Video. This proving unsuc-

cessful, they took possession of Maldonado, near the mouth of the river, where they found a secure port for their shipping. Being strengthened by additional reinforcements, the attack on Monte Video was repeated a year afterwards, and on the 3d of February, 1807, after a close siege and great slaughter, Monte Video fell into the hands of the British. The hostile temper of the Spaniards prevented them for some time from attempting to regain their lost footing at Buenos Ayres ; but early in the summer they received large reinforcements of troops, and on the 25th of June an army of 12,000 men, under General Whitelocke, proceeded from Monte Video up the river and disembarked about 30 miles from Buenos Ayres. They drove a body of Spanish troops before them, and on the 30th arrived before the city.

The British army moved to the attack on the 5th of July. The troops marched in separate columns, each having its distinct point to assail. As the columns entered the city they were greeted with a furious and overwhelming fire from the roofs and windows. At every step they encountered a fresh storm of shot and missiles. Grapeshot were poured upon them from every corner ; musketry, hand-grenades, bricks and stones rained from the housetops. Every dwelling was a fortress, and all its tenants were indefatigable in its defence. For ten hours the battle raged without diminishing the ardor and obstinacy of the combatants on either side. Some of the detachments were totally destroyed by the fire of the citizens. Others had their retreat cut off, and were forced to surrender in the streets. Others took shelter in convents and churches, and after terrible slaughter, yielded to overwhelming numbers. Only two of the posts assailed by the British remained in their hands at the end of the conflict, and after a loss of 2500 men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

Notwithstanding the disastrous issue of the attempt, the British commander determined to repeat the attack on the following day ; but he was deterred by a communication from the Spanish commander, Liniers, who proposed to deliver up his prisoners on condition that the British should immediately evacuate the country. Extraordinary as this proposal may seem, General Whitelocke found himself compelled to listen to it.

MOVING FOR INDEPENDENCE.

Thus, at the end of the year the British were completely expelled from a territory over which they imagined they had established a firm

dominion. Liniers became the popular idol, and was appointed Viceroy of the province. He appears to have behaved, at first, with prudence and moderation, and at the same time with inflexible fidelity to the King of Spain. But the most embarrassing troubles soon arose. Napoleon seized the throne of Spain, and attempted to possess himself of her colonies. Two parties soon sprung up at Buenos Ayres. The more enlightened among the native population, some of whom had long secretly cherished the desire of independence, felt a wish to seize this opportunity to throw off the Spanish yoke forever. But those of European birth, comprising almost all in authority, were interested in the continuation of the ancient government, and opposed all revolutionary ideas. With the mass of the inhabitants any notion of change was too bold. Liniers, in his embarrassment, was obliged to temporize, and incurred the suspicion of both parties. In July, 1808, a French vessel, with an envoy from Napoleon, arrived at Buenos Ayres with dispatches to Liniers, informing him of the transfer of the crown of Spain, and calling upon the authorities in South America to give their allegiance to the new government. Liniers, a Frenchman by birth, was not disinclined to this step; but convened the municipality and the court of audience for consultation. This meeting were of opinion that the extraordinary occurrences in Spain should be officially announced to the people; but they appear to have been undecided on any step beyond this. Liniers, aware of the hostility of the people toward the French, gave, in his proclamation but an obscure account of the recent occurrences, and exhorted the inhabitants, in the name of Napoleon, to remain quiet and use their endeavors to preserve the tranquillity of the country.

CIVIL DISSENSIONS.

But factions and dissensions soon began to throw the country into confusion. Elio, the Governor of Monte Video, formed a party in opposition to Liniers, whom he accused of disloyalty. The European Spaniards were more numerous at Monte Video than at Buenos Ayres. They united with the officers of the army and navy and created a junta, which acknowledged the dependence of the country on the crown of Spain. A serious attempt was made by the same class of persons in the capital to remove Liniers from the station of Viceroy. They succeeded so far as to place him under the necessity of resigning; but this was no

sooner known than the native militia took up arms in his support, restored him to authority, and banished his enemies to Patagonia. Liniers now sent an expedition against Monte Video, where Elio had assumed the title of Viceroy; but while this was in progress Don Josef de Goyeneche arrived from Spain for the purpose of mediating between the two parties. He had sufficient influence to cause the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres to acknowledge the supremacy of Spain, and proclaim Ferdinand VII. Through his exertions the people were induced to rise in all parts of the city in January, 1809, and demand the establishment of a provisional junta. Liniers, however, maintained his influence with the army, and by their help was enabled to defeat this movement.

SUCCESS OF THE REVOLUTION.

Liniers did not long enjoy this triumph. In August, 1809, Cisneros, a newly-appointed Viceroy, arrived from Spain, and Liniers was deposed from office by the junta which he had overthrown a few months previous. He was exiled to Cordova; but the new Viceroy found it more easy to remove his predecessor than to establish himself in his place. The ebullition of loyalty that had proclaimed Ferdinand was of short duration. The Spanish Americans began to feel that they had power in their hands; and their successes in defeating two British armies encouraged them to think they possessed valor also. Notwithstanding the exertions that had been made by the court of Spain to prevent the introduction of books and newspapers into the country, many had been clandestinely imported and eagerly read, and some intelligence was gained of the events in progress in other parts of the world. The natives had been forbidden to visit Europe or to send their children thither for instruction; yet some had evaded this prohibition, and returned with a keen sense of the wrongs which their country was suffering under the leaden yoke of Spain. Reform, innovation and independence began to be spoken of in confidential whispers, and speedily became the topics at political meetings. Commotion followed commotion, and in May, 1810, the Viceroy, Cisneros, finding his embarrassments and perplexities alarmingly increased by the disasters of the Spaniards in Europe, was compelled to announce his inability to manage the government. The municipality of the city requested him to call a congress, which he proceeded to do. The congress established a provisional junta for the

government of the country, and one of its first acts was to depose the Viceroy and send him to Spain. The 25th of May, when this government went into action, has ever since been observed as the anniversary of Buenos Ayrean independence.

Monte Video and the interior provinces disapproved of these proceedings. Liniers raised an army of 2000 men and began a civil war by laying waste the country around Cordova, to check the approach of the troops from the capital. General Nieto collected another force in Potosi. The junta of Buenos Ayres gave the command of their army to Colonel Ocampo, who straightway took the field. On his approach to Cordova the troops of Liniers abandoned him, and he was taken prisoner with many of his adherents. Liniers, Concha, the Bishop of Cordova, with several other persons of distinction, were condemned and executed. Thus fell the first leader in this revolution by the hands of the people whom he had assisted to tread the first steps in the career of their emancipation. The leaders at Buenos Ayres feared his great popularity, and saw in him a formidable obstacle to their designs.

OTHER COUNTRIES REVOLT.

The country was now, in fact, entirely separated from Spain. The die was cast, and the leaders of the revolution had no choice but to advance or be crushed by a counter-revolution. They boldly asserted that the sovereignty of Spain over the colonies had temporarily ceased with the captivity of the King, and that each colony had a right to take care of itself. The spirit of independence made such rapid progress that in the course of the year 1810 the whole viceroyalty, excepting the province of Paraguay and the town of Monte Video, threw off the authority of the crown and acknowledged that of the provincial junta. They professed at the same time an intention to return to their allegiance to Ferdinand on his restoration to the throne; but this was an event which few expected and fewer still desired.

The junta, shortly after the commencement of their administration, despatched a force under Don A. Jonte to Chili, to revolutionize that country. This expedition was crowned with full success; the royal government was overthrown, a provincial junta established, and Jonte was continued in Chili as charge d'affaires from the government of Buenos Ayres. About the same time Ocampo was ordered to march against the

royalists, who had collected in considerable strength in Upper Peru. Ocampo defeated this force and subjected a great part of the district. In the meantime Velasco, the governor of Paraguay, had raised an army and menaced Buenos Ayres. Belgrano, at the head of a small body of Buenos Ayrean troops, marched against him, and a battle was fought on the banks of the Tacuari, where Belgrano was defeated. Subsequently, however, Velasco was deposed and a junta was established in Paraguay, which formed an alliance with Buenos Ayres.

COLOMBIAN INDEPENDENCE.

The movement for independence in the northern part of South America began in Venezuela and Colombia in 1805, under the lead of General Miranda, who sailed from New York in 1806 with a few hundred followers and landed in Puerto Cabello. His enterprise was a failure, but it opened the way for the later and more successful work of Bolivar. The year 1808 also saw the beginning of the revolution in Mexico.

SCIENCE AND LITERATURE.

The first day of the century, January 1, 1801, was signalized by a noteworthy scientific achievement. This was the discovery of the asteroid Ceres by the astronomer Piazzi—the first of all the asteroids to be discovered.

In 1802 "The Edinburgh Review," the first of the famous quarterly reviews, was founded. Its founders were Francis Jeffrey, Sidney Smith, Henry Brougham and Francis Horner, and its publisher was Constable. It was a success from the first, and in a few years rose to the foremost place in the literary world.

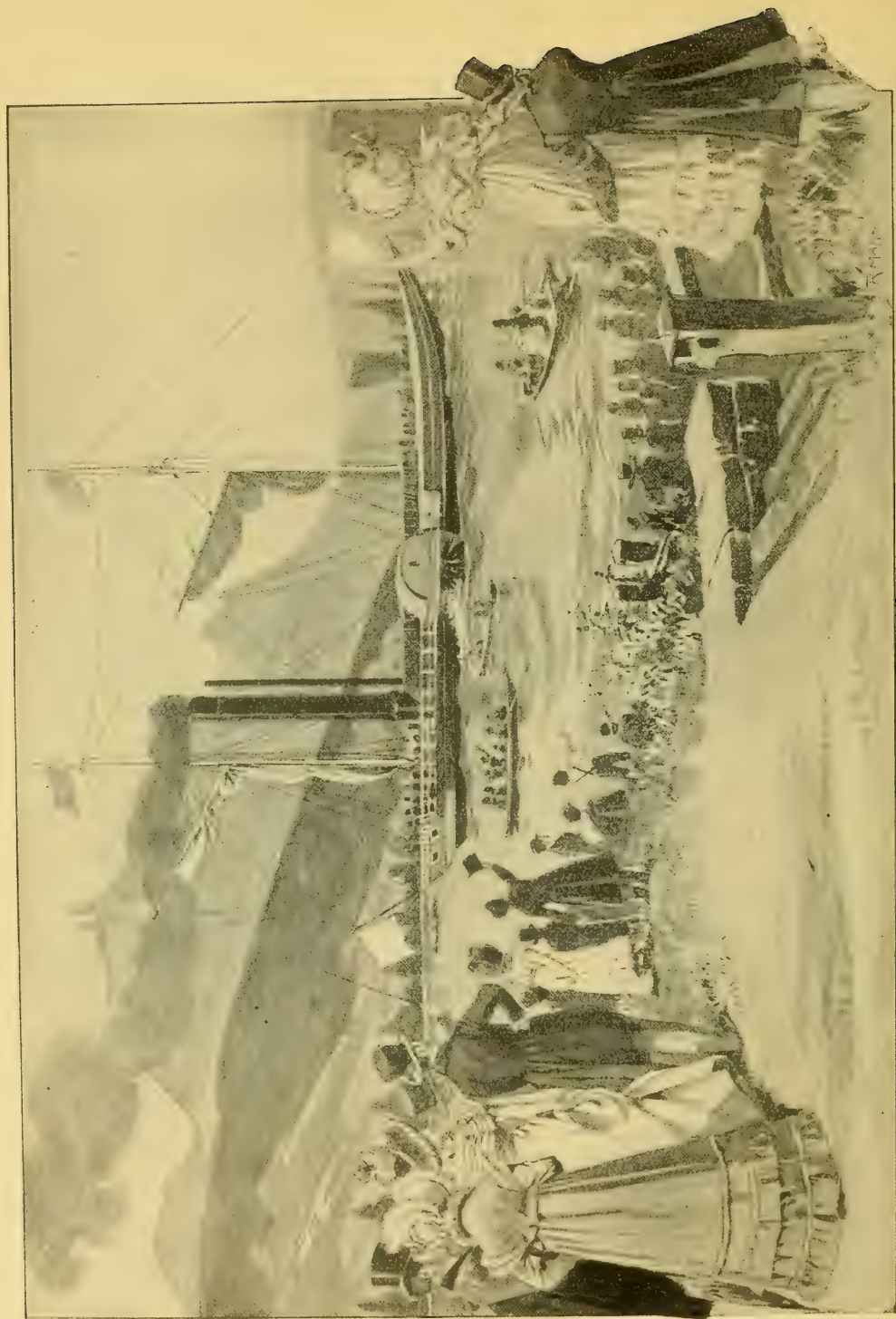
The deaths of Klopstock, Alfieri and Herder occurred in 1803, and the fact indicates the quality of intellect that then prevailed. Klopstock, author of "The Messiah," must always be reckoned among the greatest of German poets, and Alfieri holds similar rank among Italian poets. Herder, the teacher and guide of Goethe, is well entitled to be remembered as the founder of modern German literature. In 1804 Immanuel Kant, one of the greatest philosophers of any age, died.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

In these years American literature may be said to have had its foundation. Washington Irving began his work in the "Morning Chronicle"



1807—OFFICERS OF THE "CHESAPEAKE" OFFERING THEIR SWORDS TO THE OFFICERS
OF THE "LEOPARD."



1807—FULTON'S STEAMBOAT ON THE HUDSON RIVER

in 1802, and in 1808 published his famous "Knickerbocker's History of New York." In 1805 Abiel Holmes, father of Oliver Wendell Holmes, published the first two volumes of his monumental work, "American Annals."

At the same time Sir Walter Scott was rising into notice in Great Britain. He produced his "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border" in 1802, his "Lay of the Last Minstrel" in 1805, his "Tales of My Landlord" in 1807, and "Marmion" in 1808.

Schiller, one of the greatest poets of Germany, died in 1805, having produced his famous drama of "William Tell" in the preceding year. The philosopher Hegel ended his Jena lectures in 1806, and in 1807 published his "Phenomenology of Spirit."

The general manners and customs of society in these years were a curious mixture of ancient and modern. Old things were passing away, yet had not entirely vanished, and the fashions of the present time were only just beginning to commend themselves to the world.

CHAPTER IV.

Madison Becomes President of the United States—Trouble with the Indians—The War of 1812—American Disasters—Victories at Sea—Invasion of Canada—Battle of Lake Erie—British Success at Sea—Chippewa and Lundy's Lane—Lake Champlain—Burning of Washington—Talking of Peace—Battle of New Orleans—Hartford Convention—The Creek War—Close of Mr. Madison's Administration.

IN 1809, Mr. Jefferson, having declined a re-election, was succeeded as President of the United States by James Madison, who had held the office of Secretary of State in the late administration, and who pursued the same general policy. At the commencement of the new administration an arrangement was made with Mr. Erskine, the British minister, by which the American government was induced to renew the trade with England; but this arrangement was afterwards disavowed on the part of Great Britain. The succeeding negotiator, Mr. Jackson, having, soon after his arrival, used offensive language, the President declined having any further correspondence with him. An unhappy encounter between the American and English ships of war, the "President" and the "Little Belt," served to increase the unfriendly sentiments of the two countries.

TROUBLE WITH THE INDIANS.

The first war of the Administration was, however, not foreign but domestic. Ohio had been admitted as a State. Illinois was now erected into a territory. And the Indians occupying those regions were consequently disturbed, and were, so far as possible, induced to settle in Indiana, over which Territory General William Henry Harrison was governor. In September, 1809, General Harrison negotiated a treaty with the Miami Indians, by which they sold to the United States a large tract of country along the Wabash River. This aroused much dissatisfaction among the warlike members of the tribe, with the result that the bulk

of the tribe was soon persuaded to go upon the warpath. The hostilities culminated in the battle of Tippecanoe, which was fought on November 7, 1811, the American forces being led by General Harrison in person. More than three thousand Indians were engaged, and they were completely routed.

Other incidents of the early part of Mr. Madison's administration were the admission of Louisiana as a State, the creation of the Territory of Missouri, and a dreadful theatre fire at Richmond, Virginia, in which many lives were lost.

THE WAR OF 1812.

The prospect of an amicable adjustment of existing difficulties between the United States and Great Britain continuing to become daily more dark and unpromising, Congress met, pursuant to adjournment, on the 25th of May, 1812; and on the 1st of June the President sent a message to that body, strongly recommending a declaration of war. The principal grounds for it, as stated in the message, were the impressment of American seamen by the British; the blockading of the ports by their enemies; the orders in Council; and a suspicion that the Indians had been instigated to acts of hostility by British agents.

The bill for declaring war passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 79 to 49, and the Senate, by one of 19 to 13; and on the 18th of June, the day after it passed the Senate, it was signed by the President. Five days after the declaration of war the British orders in Council were repealed in consequence of the decrees of Berlin and Milan having been revoked.

The minority of Congress opposed the declaration of war on the ground of its being, in their view, unnecessary and impolitic; they maintained, also, that the aggressions of the French had been greater than those of the English; and they entered a solemn protest against the measure. A considerable proportion of the people of the United States sympathized, in their views, with this minority; and the war was, consequently, prosecuted with much less energy and success than it might otherwise have been.

AMERICAN DISASTERS.

Notwithstanding the length of time during which hostilities had been meditated, they were commenced in a very imperfect state of preparation on the part of the American government; and in consequence

the operations of the American armies by land during the first year were wholly unsuccessful and disastrous. Fort Dearborn, near the site of Chicago, and the rising town of Detroit, had speedily to be surrendered to British invaders from Canada. On the 12th of July, 1812, General Hull, with an army of upwards of 2000 men, invaded Canada; and, on the 16th of August, he surrendered, with the whole of his troops, to the British. A second attempt to invade the province was made by General Van Rensselaer who, with about 1000 men, crossed the Niagara in November and attacked the British at Queenstown; after an obstinate engagement he was obliged to surrender with his army. In this engagement the British commander, General Brock, was killed.

VICTORIES AT SEA.

While the operations of the troops of the United States in Canada were so extremely unfortunate and mortifying, brilliant success attended the American flag on the ocean. In August the frigate "Constitution," or "Old Ironsides," commanded by Captain Hull, captured the British frigate, the "Guerriere." In October, the frigate "United States," commanded by Captain Decatur, took the British frigate, the "Macedonian." In November, the British sloop, the "Frolic," was captured by the sloop "Wasp," under Captain Jones; but the "Wasp" was immediately after taken by the "Poictiers," a British seventy-four. In December the "Constitution," commanded by Captain Bainbridge, captured the British frigate, the "Java." In these four engagements the total loss of the British in killed and wounded was 423; that of the Americans, only 73.

The operations of the war during 1813 were productive of alternate successes and reverses. In January a detachment of about 800 men under General Winchester was surprised and defeated by the British and Indians under General Proctor, at Frenchtown, on the river Raisin. Those who had not fallen, amounting to about 500, surrendered prisoners, a great part of whom were inhumanly massacred by the Indians.

INVASION OF CANADA.

In April a detachment of 1700 American troops, under General Pike, after some severe fighting, took possession of York, in Upper Canada, and destroyed a large quantity of public stores. By the explosion of a mine, prepared for the purpose, General Pike, together with about 100 Americans, were killed. The British lost about 700 in killed



1808 SCENE IN A CONVENT DURING THE FRANCO-SPANISH WAR



1809—NAPOLEON AT THE BATTLE OF WAGRAM

wounded and captured. Colonel Dudley, being detached from Fort Meigs with 800 men to attack the enemy's battery, was surrounded by a large army of Indians, under Tecumseh, and was defeated, with the loss of most of his troops.

In May an attack was made upon Sackett's Harbor by about 1000 British troops, under Sir George Prevost, who was repulsed with considerable loss by the Americans under General Brown. Two days before this event Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans under General Boyd and Colonel Miller. The British, who were commanded by General Vincent, lost nearly 1000 in killed, wounded and captured. A few days afterwards Generals Chandler and Windler, who had advanced with a considerable force, were surprised in the night, not far from the fort, by the British under General Vincent, and were both taken prisoners.

BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE.

The most brilliant achievement during this year was the defeat of the British naval force on Lake Erie in September by Commodore Perry. The British fleet consisted of six vessels, having 63 guns; that of the Americans, of nine vessels, with 56 guns. The conflict, which lasted three hours, was tremendous; but the victory was complete. The British force being reduced to almost a total wreck fell entirely into the hands of the Americans, who were, by this achievement, rendered masters of the lake.

After this victory General Harrison embarked his main army on board the American squadron, landed on the Canadian shore, and in October, near the Thames, defeated and dispersed the British army under General Proctor. In this action the enemy sustained a severe loss, and the celebrated Indian chief, Tecumseh, was killed. But the Americans were afterwards repulsed at Williamsburg.

BRITISH SUCCESS AT SEA.

Great preparations had been made for the conquest of Canada, under Generals Wilkinson and Hampton, but nothing of importance was effected; and a disagreement between the two generals prevented that concert which was necessary to insure success. The village Newark, in Canada, being burnt by the Americans, the British crossed over, and, in retaliation, burnt Buffalo, which was then a small town, and some

other villages. During this year, the British, under Admiral Cockburn, committed various depredations in the south, and on the shores of the Chesapeake; but they were repulsed at Craney Island, near Norfolk.

The English were more successful on the ocean during this year than during the preceding. The American flag, however, was not, in any instance, disgraced; nor were the American ships and men found inferior to those of Britain of equal force. In February, the "Hornet," commanded by Captain Lawrence, captured the British sloop the "Peacock." In June, the "Chesapeake," under Captain Lawrence, was captured by the "Shannon," commanded by Captain Broke. In August, the "Argus" was captured by the English sloop the "Pelican"; and in September, the British brig the "Boxer" surrendered to the "Enterprise."

CHIPPEWA AND LUNDY'S LANE.

The campaign of 1814 was distinguished by more severe fighting in Canada than had before occurred. On the second day of July the Americans, under General Brown, having taken Fort Erie, proceeded to attack the British under General Drummond at Chippewa, where on the 5th an obstinate engagement took place which terminated in favor of the Americans. On the 25th of the month a more sanguinary and warmly contested battle was fought at Bridgewater, or Lundy's Lane, by the Americans under Generals Brown and Scott, and the British under Generals Drummond and Riall. The British were forced to retreat, with the loss of about 900 in killed, wounded and taken. The American army was also so much weakened that it fell back to Fort Erie, which the British afterwards attempted to storm; but they were repulsed with a severe loss. This was the last important operation of the war on this frontier.

LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

Sir George Prevost, having received large reinforcements from the troops which had been employed under the Duke of Wellington, in Spain, now advanced with an army of 14,000 men, to carry offensive war into the United States; and his first attempt was on Plattsburg. The operations of this army were accompanied by those of the British naval force on Lake Champlain, consisting of 95 guns and 1050 men, commanded by Commodore Downie. This force was totally defeated by the American fleet, having 86 guns and 826 men, under the command of

Commodore Macdonough. During the engagement between the fleets Sir George Prevost attacked the forts of Plattsburg, but was effectually repulsed by the Americans under General Macomb. The loss of British in killed, wounded and deserters was estimated at 2500; while that of the Americans, both on the land and water, was only 231.

BURNING OF WASHINGTON.

In August, a British fleet of about 60 sail arrived in the Chesapeake, and an army of about 5000 men, under General Ross, landed in the Patuxent, about forty miles from the city of Washington. Having easily put to flight the American militia under General Winder, of Bladensburg, the enemy entered Washington, burnt the capitol, the President's house and other public buildings, and retired without molestation. In September, about a fortnight after this transaction, the British army, to the number of about 7000, under General Ross and Admiral Cockburn, made a similar attempt on Baltimore, but after gaining some advantages, they were finally repulsed. In this attempt General Ross was killed. During the British attack upon Fort McHenry, at Baltimore, the national anthem, "The Star Spangled Banner," was written by Francis Scott Key.

On the ocean, the American flag maintained its reputation, and in no instance yielded to an inferior or equal force. The American frigate the "Essex," however, was captured by the British frigate the "Phœbe" and the sloop "Cherub" of a superior force, and the frigate "President" by a squadron of the enemy; but the British vessels of war, the "Epervier," "Avon," "Reindeer," "Cyane," "Levant" and "Penguin," were taken by the Americans.

TALKING OF PEACE.

As the war between the United States and Great Britain was a branch of the great European quarrel, it naturally fell to the ground when that quarrel ceased. The matters in dispute between the two countries related to maritime and neutral rights; but, with regard to these subjects, there was no longer any cause of difference, as the world was at peace. On the restoration of peace in Europe, both parties began to think seriously about ending the war, and the Emperor of Russia offered his services as mediator, which were, however, declined by the British government, and a direct negotiation at London or Gotten-

burg was proposed. In April, 1813, commissioners, on the part of the United States, were appointed to meet others from England at Gottenburg; but the place of meeting was afterwards changed to Ghent, where a treaty was finally signed on the 24th of December, 1814.

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

While the negotiation was in progress, a large armament, under the command of Sir Edward Packenham, was fitted out by Great Britain for an attack on New Orleans, with the intention, apparently, of ending the war with some eclat, but the design met with a most signal and fatal defeat. The British, after enduring great fatigues and numerous difficulties, and sustaining some desperate encounters, assaulted the works thrown up for the defence of the city, on the 8th of January, 1815, when they were dreadfully cut to pieces and repulsed by the Americans under General Jackson. The loss of the enemy in killed, wounded and captured amounted to about 2600; among the slain were the commander-in-chief, General Packenham, and other principal officers. The loss of the Americans was only 7 killed and 6 wounded. This was the last important operation of the war.

HARTFORD CONVENTION.

In 1814, the North-eastern States were in a very exposed condition, being destitute of protection from the national troops, and great alarm was excited among the people. At this juncture, the legislature of Massachusetts proposed a conference, by delegates from the legislatures of the New England States and of any of the other States that might accede to the measure, in order to devise and recommend to these States measures for their security and defence. A convention, composed of distinguished men, delegates from the New England States, accordingly met at Hartford, in Connecticut, on the 15th of December, and after a session of three weeks, they published the result of their deliberations.

The commissioners of the convention, who were sent to confer with the national government and the treaty of peace with Great Britain, arrived at Washington about the same time, so that the war and all proceedings relating to its continuance were, at length, happily terminated.

THE CREEK WAR.

While the war with Great Britain was in progress, in the fall of 1812, a sanguinary war was waged by the Creeks and Seminoles, against the frontier inhabitants of Georgia. At the head of 2500 volunteers from Tennessee, General Jackson marched into their country, and compelled them to desist; but, soon after his return, their animosity burst forth with increased and fatal violence. Dreading their cruelty, some 300 men, women, and children, took refuge in Fort Mimms. Here, at noon-day, on the 30th of August, they were surprised by a party of 600 Indians, who, from the fort, drove the people into the houses which it inclosed. To these they set fire. Seventeen only of the refugees escaped to carry the horrid tidings to the neighboring stations. But the whites resolved on vengeance. General Jackson, at the head of 3500 militia of Tennessee, again took up his march into the southern wilderness. A detachment, under General Coffee, encountering at Tallushatchie a body of Indians, a sanguinary conflict ensued. The latter fought with desperation, neither giving nor receiving quarter, until nearly every warrior had perished. Yet still, the spirit of the Creeks remained unsubdued. With no little sagacity and skill, they selected and fortified another position on the Tallapoosa, called by themselves the Tohopeka, and by whites the Horse-shoe Bend. Here nearly a thousand warriors, animated with a fierce and determined resolution, were collected. 3000 men, commanded by General Jackson, marched to attack this post. To prevent escape, a detachment under General Coffee encircled the Bend. The main body advanced to the fortress, and for a few minutes the opposing forces were engaged muzzle to muzzle at the portholes; but at length, the troops leaping over the walls, mingled in furious combat with the savages. When the Indians, fleeing to the river, beheld the troops on the opposite bank, they returned, and fought with increasing fury and desperation. 600 warriors were killed; four only yielded themselves prisoners; the remaining 300 escaped. Of the whites, 55 were killed and 146 wounded.

It was deemed probable that further resistance would be made by the Indians at a place called the Hickory-ground; but, on General Jackson's arriving thither in April, 1814, the principal chiefs came out to meet him, and peace was made.

CLOSE OF MR. MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The remainder of Mr. Madison's administration was marked by few events or measures of national importance. Yet, we may briefly notice the conclusion of a treaty, conducted at Algiers, with the dey of Algiers, with William Shaler and Commodore Stephen Decatur, on the 30th of June, 1815—a "convention by which to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States and of His Britannic Majesty," concluded at London, July 3—and the incorporation of a national bank, with a capital of thirty-five million dollars. Indiana was admitted to the Union as a State, and Alabama was erected into a Territory.

In the fall of 1812, Mr. Madison was re-elected President for a second term, and Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President. In the fall of 1816, Mr. Madison made it known that he would follow Jefferson's example, and retire from office at the end of his second term. Accordingly, James Monroe, of Virginia, was chosen President in his place, and Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, was chosen Vice-President.

CHAPTER V.

Austria against Napoleon—Napoleon's Divorce and Re-marriage—Wellington at Torres Vedras—Turn of the Tide in Spain—Quarrel with Russia—Marching to Moscow—Borodino—Destruction of Moscow—Horrors of the Retreat—Destruction of the Grand Army—Lutzen and Leipsic—Invasion of France—Napoleon's Return from Elba—Waterloo—Restoration of the Bourbons—The Second Peace of Paris.

A SHORT time before the battle of Corunna, Napoleon received dispatches which induced him to return immediately to Paris. The Austrian Emperor, humbled but not subdued, and stimulated by the warlike spirit of his subjects, once more resolved to try the hazards of war, while the best troops of Napoleon were occupied in the Spanish Peninsula. On the 8th of April, 1809, large bodies of Austrian troops crossed the frontiers of Bohemia, of the Tyrol, and of Italy, and soon involved in great danger the dispersed divisions of Napoleon's army. On the 17th of the same month Napoleon arrived and took the command in person. Baffling the Austrian generals by the rapidity of his movements, he speedily concentrated his divisions, and in four days of combats and manœuvres, from the 19th to the 22d inclusive, he completed the ruin of the Austrian army. On the last of these days he defeated the Archduke Charles at Eckmuhl, and compelled him to recross the Danube. Rapidly following up his victories, he entered Vienna on the 13th of May, and although worsted in the battle of Aspern on the 21st and 22d, on the 5th of July he gained a triumph at Wagram, and soon after dictated a peace by which Austria was compelled to surrender territory containing 3,500,000 inhabitants.

During the war with Austria the brave Tyrolese had seized the opportunity to raise the standard of revolt; and it was not until two powerful French armies had been sent into their country that they were subdued. The British government also sent a fleet and an army of 40,000 men to make a diversion against Napoleon on the coast of Holland; but the expedition proved a failure.

NAPOLÉON'S DIVORCE AND RE-MARRIAGE.

Near the close of 1809 the announcement was made that Napoleon was about to obtain a divorce from the Empress Josephine for the purpose of allying himself with one of the royal families of Europe. To Josephine Napoleon was warmly attached ; but reasons of state policy were, in his breast, superior to the dearest affections. His first marriage having been annulled by the French Senate, early in 1810 he received the hand of Maria Louisa of Austria, daughter of the Emperor Francis. This marriage, which seemed permanently to establish Napoleon's power, by uniting the lustre of descent with the grandeur of his throne, was one of the principal causes of his final ruin, as it was justly feared by the other European powers that, secured by the Austrian alliance, he would strive to make himself master of Europe. His conduct towards Holland justified this suspicion. Dissatisfied with his brother's government of that country, he soon after, by an imperial decree, incorporated Holland with the French Empire. In the same year Bernadotte, one of his generals, was advanced to the throne of Sweden. Napoleon continued his career of aggrandizement in the central parts of Europe, and extended the French limits almost to the frontiers of Russia, thereby exciting the strongest jealousy of the Russian Emperor, who renewed his intercourse with the court of London, and began to prepare for that tremendous conflict with France, which he saw approaching.

WELLINGTON AT TORRES VEDRAS.

The war still continued in the Spanish Peninsula. Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had recently been created Lord Wellington, had the chief command of the English, Spanish and Portuguese forces. On the 10th of July the Spanish fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo surrendered to Marshal Massena, but on the 27th of September Massena was defeated in an attack upon Wellington on the heights of Busaco. Wellington, still pursuing his plan of defensive operations, then retired to the strongly fortified lines of Torres Vedras, which defended the approaches to Lisbon. Massena followed, but in vain endeavored to find a weak spot where he could attack with any prospect of success, and after continuing before the lines more than a month, he broke up his position on the 14th of November, and for the first time since the accession of Napoleon, the French eagles commenced a final retreat.

The early part of 1811 witnessed the siege of Badajoz by Marshal Soult, and its surrender to the French on the 10th of March ; but this was soon followed by the battle of Albuera, in which the united British and Spanish forces gained an important victory. Many battles were fought during the remainder of the year, but they were attended with no important results on either side.

TURN OF THE TIDE IN SPAIN.

The year 1812 opened with the surrender of the important city of Valencia to Marshal Suchet on the 9th of January, the last of a long series of French triumphs in the peninsula. On the same day Wellington, in another quarter, laid siege to Ciudad Rodrigo ; and the capture of this place by the British arms was soon followed by that of Badajoz. Wellington, following up his successes, next defeated Marmont in the battle of Salamanca ; the intrusive King Joseph fled from Madrid, and on the next day the capital of Spain was in the possession of the British army. The concentration of the French forces again compelled the cautious Wellington to retreat to Portugal ; but early in the following year, 1813, he resumed the offensive, gained the decisive battle of Vittoria, and before the close of the campaign, drove the French across the Pyrenees into their own territories.

QUARREL WITH RUSSIA.

During these reverses to the French arms, events of greater magnitude than those of the Peninsular war were occupying the personal attention of Napoleon. The jealousy of Russia at his repeated encroachments in Central and Northern Europe has already been mentioned ; moreover, the commercial interests of Russia, in common with those of the other Northern powers, had been greatly injured by the measures of Napoleon for destroying the trade of England : but the French Emperor refused to abandon his favorite policy, and the angry discussions between the Cabinets of St. Petersburg and Versailles led to the assembling of vast armies on both sides, and the commencement of hostilities in the early part of the summer of 1812. Napoleon had driven Sweden to enter into an alliance with Russia and England ; but he arrayed around his standard the immense forces of France, Italy, Germany, the Confederation of the Rhine, Poland, and the two monarchies, Prussia and Austria.

The "Grand Army" assembled in Poland for the Russian war amounted to the immense aggregate of more than 500,000 men, of whom 80,000 were cavalry, the whole being supported by 1300 pieces of cannon. Nearly 20,000 chariots or carts, of all descriptions, followed the army, while the whole number of horses amounted to 187,000. To oppose this vast army the Russians had collected at the beginning of the contest nearly 300,000 men ; but as the war was carried into the interior their forces increased in numbers until the armies on both sides were nearly equal.

MARCHING TO MOSCOW.

On the 24th of June, 1812, Napoleon crossed the Niemen at the head of the "Grand Army," and entered upon his ever memorable Russian campaign. As the enormous superiority of his forces rendered it hopeless for the Russians to attempt any immediate resistance, they gradually fell back before the invaders, wasting the country as they retreated. The wisdom of this course soon became apparent. A terrible tempest soon set in, and the horses in the French army perished by thousands from the combined effects of incessant rain and scanty forage ; the soldiers sickened in great numbers, and before a single shot had been fired 25,000 sick and dying men filled the hospitals ; 10,000 dead horses strewed the road to Wilna, and 120 pieces of cannon were abandoned for want of the means of transport.

Still Napoleon pressed onward in several divisions, frequently skirmishing with the enemy, and driving them before him, until he arrived under the fortified walls of Smolensko, where 30,000 Russians made a stand to oppose him. A hundred and fifty cannon were brought up to batter the walls, but without effect, for the thickness of the ramparts defied the efforts of the artillery. But the French howitzers set fire to some houses near the ramparts ; the flames spread with wonderful rapidity, and during the night which followed the battle, a lurid light from the burning city was cast over the French bivouacs, grouped in dense masses for several miles in circumference. At 3 o'clock in the morning a solitary French soldier scaled the walls and penetrated into the interior ; but he found neither inhabitants nor opponents. Desolation had been completed by the voluntary sacrifice of the inhabitants, who had withdrawn with the army, leaving a ruined city, naked walls, and the cannon which mounted them, as the only trophy to the conqueror.

BORODINO.

The division of the army led by Napoleon followed the Russians on the road to Moscow, engaging in frequent but indecisive encounters with the rear guard. When the retreating forces had reached the small village of Borodino, their commander, General Kutusoff, resolved to risk a battle, in the hope of saving Moscow. On the evening of the 6th of September, the two vast armies took their positions facing each other,—each numbering more than 130,000 men—the Russians having 640 pieces of cannon, and the French 590. Napoleon sought to stimulate the enthusiasm of his soldiers by recounting to them the glories of Marengo, of Jena, and of Austerlitz, while a procession of dignified clergy passed through the Russian ranks, bestowing their blessings upon the kneeling soldiers, and invoking the aid of the God of battles to drive the invader from the land.

At 6 o'clock on the morning of the 7th, a gun, fired from the French lines, announced the commencement of the battle; the roar of more than 1,000 cannon shook the earth; vast clouds of smoke, shutting out the light of the sun, arose in awful sublimity over the scene; and 260,000 combatants, led on in the gathering gloom by the light of the cannon and musketry, engaged in the work of death. The battle raged, with desolating fury, until night put an end to its horrors. The slaughter was immense. The loss on both sides was nearly equal, amounting, in the aggregate, to 90,000 in killed and wounded. The Russian position was eventually carried, but neither side gained a decisive victory.

DESTRUCTION OF MOSCOW.

On the day after the battle, the Russians retired, in perfect order, on the great road to Moscow. Preparations were immediately made by the inhabitants for abandoning that city, long revered as the cradle of the Empire; and when, on the 14th, Napoleon entered it, no deputation of citizens awaited him to deprecate his hostility, but the dwellings of 300,000 persons were as silent as the wilderness. It seemed like a city of the dead. Napoleon took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars; but the Russian authorities had determined that their beloved city should not afford a shelter to the invaders. At midnight, on the night of the 15th, a vast light was seen to illuminate the most distant part of the city; fires broke out in all directions, and

Moscow soon exhibited a vast ocean of flame agitated by the wind. Nine-tenths of the city were consumed, and Napoleon was driven to seek a temporary refuge for his army in the country ; but, afterwards, returning to the Kremlin, which had escaped the ravages of the fire, he remained there until the 19th of October, when, all his proposals of peace being rejected, he was compelled to order a retreat.

HORRORS OF THE RETREAT.

The horrors of that retreat, which, during fifty-five days that intervened until the recrossing of the Niemen, was almost one continued battle, exceeded anything before known in the annals of war. The exasperated Russians intercepted the retreating army wherever an opportunity offered ; and a cloud of Cossacks, hovering incessantly around the wearied columns, gradually wore away their numbers. But the severities of the Russian winter, which set in on the 6th of November, were far more destructive of life than the sword of the enemy. The weather, before mild, suddenly changed to intense cold ; the wind howled frightfully through the forests, or swept over the plains with resistless fury ; and the snow fell in thick and continued showers, soon confounding all objects, and leaving the army to wander, without landmarks, through an icy desert.

Thousands of the soldiers, falling benumbed with cold, and exhausted, perished miserably in sight of their companions ; and the route of the rear guard of the army was literally choked up by the icy mounds of the dead. In their nightly bivouacs, crowds of starving men prepared, around their scanty fires, a miserable meal of rye, mixed with snow-water and horse flesh ; but numbers never awoke from the slumbers that followed ; and the sites of the night fires were marked by circles of dead bodies, with their feet still resting on the extinguished piles. Clouds of ravens, issuing from the forests, hovered over the dying remains of the soldiers ; while troops of famished dogs which had followed the army from Moscow, howled in the rear, and often fell upon their victims before life was extinct.

The ambition of Napoleon had led the pride and the chivalry of Europe to perish amid the snows of a Russian winter ; and he bitterly felt the taunt of the enemy, "Could the French find no graves in their own land?"

DESTRUCTION OF THE GRAND ARMY.

Napoleon had first thought of remaining in winter quarters at Smolensko, but the exhausted state of his magazines, and the concentrating around him of vast forces of the enemy, which threatened soon to overwhelm him, convinced him that a protracted stay was impossible, and on the 14th of November the retreat was renewed—Napoleon, in the midst of his still faithful guards, leading the advance, and the heroic Ney bringing up the rear. But the enemy harassed them at every step. During the 16th, 17th and 18th, in the battles of Krasnoi, Napoleon lost 10,000 killed, 20,000 taken prisoners, and more than a hundred pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the enemy. The terrible passage of the Beresina, which was purchased by the loss of 16,000 prisoners and 24,000 killed or drowned in the stream, completed the ruin of the Grand Army. All subordination now ceased, and it was with difficulty that Marshal Ney could collect 3000 men on foot to form the rear guard and protect the helpless multitude from the indefatigable Cossacks, and when at length the few remaining fugitives reached the passage of the Niemen the rear guard was reduced to 30 men. The veteran marshal, bearing a musket and still facing the enemy, was the last of the Grand Army who left the Russian territory. Napoleon had already abandoned the remnant of his forces, and setting out in a sledge for Paris, he arrived there at midnight on the 18th of December, even before the news of his terrible reverses had reached the capital. It has been estimated that in this famous Russian campaign 125,000 men of the army of Napoleon perished in battle; that 132,000 died of fatigue, hunger and cold, and that nearly 200,000 were taken prisoners.

LUTZEN AND LEIPSIC.

Notwithstanding his terrible reverses in the Russian campaign, Napoleon found that he still possessed the confidence of the French nation; he at once obtained from the Senate a new levy of 350,000 men—took the most vigorous measures to repair his losses, and having arranged his difficulties with the Pope, on the 15th of April he left Paris for the theatre of war. In the meantime Prussia and Sweden had joined the alliance against him; a general insurrection spread over the German States; Austria wavered; and already the confederates had advanced as far as the Elbe. On the 2d of May Napoleon gained the battle of

Lutzen, and a fortnight later that of Bautzen ; but as these were not decisive, on the 4th of July an armistice was agreed to, and a congress met at Prague to consider terms of peace.

As Napoleon would listen to nothing calculated to limit his power, on the expiration of the armistice, on the 10th of August, war was renewed, when the Austrian Emperor, abandoning the cause of his son-in-law, joined the allies. Napoleon at once commenced a series of vigorous operations against his several foes, and with various success fought the battles of Culm, Cross Beren, the Katsbach and Dennewitz, in which the allies, although not decidedly victorious, were constantly gaining strength. In the first battle of Leipsic, fought on the 16th of October, the result was indecisive, but in the battle of the 18th the French were signally defeated, and on the following morning began a retrograde movement towards the Rhine. Pressed on all sides by the allies, great numbers were made prisoners during the retreat ; about 80,000, left to garrison the Prussian fortresses, surrendered ; the Saxons, Hanoverians and Hollanders threw off the French yoke, and it was at this time that Wellington was completing the expulsion of the French from Spain.

INVASION OF FRANCE.

The year 1814 opened with the invasion of France, on the eastern frontiers, by the Prussian, Russian and Austrian armies ; while Wellington, having crossed the Pyrenees, laid siege to Bayonne. Bernadotte, the old comrade of Napoleon, but now King of Sweden, was marching against France at the head of a 100,000 men ; and Murat, King of Naples, brother-in-law of the French Emperor, eager to secure his crown, entered into a secret treaty with Austria for the expulsion of the French from Italy. Never did the military talents of Napoleon shine with greater lustre than at this crisis. During two months, with a greatly inferior force, he repelled the attacks of his enemies, gained many brilliant victories, and electrified all Europe by the rapidity and skill of his movements. But the odds were too great against him ; the enemy had crossed the Rhine, and while, by a bold movement, Napoleon threw himself into the rear of the allies, hoping to intimidate them into a retreat, they marched upon Paris, which was compelled to capitulate before he could come to its relief. Two days later the Emperor was formally deposed by the Senate, and on the 6th of April, with a trembling hand, he signed

an unconditional abdication of the thrones of France and Italy. By a treaty concluded between him and the allies on the 11th, Napoleon was promised the sovereignty of the island of Elba and a pension of £100,000 per annum. On the 3d of May, Louis XVIII, returning from his long exile, re-entered Paris. To conciliate the French people he gave them a constitutional charter, and soon after concluded a formal treaty with the allies, by which the continental dominions of France were restricted to what they had been in 1792.

NAPOLÉON'S RETURN FROM ELBA.

The final settlement of European affairs had been left to a general congress of the ministers of the allied powers, which assembled at Vienna on the 25th of September; but while the conferences were still pending, the congress was thrown into consternation by the announcement that Napoleon had left Elba. An extensive conspiracy had been formed throughout France for restoring the fallen Emperor, and on the 1st of March, 1815, he landed at Frejus, accompanied by only 1100 men. Everywhere the soldiery received him with enthusiasm. Ney, who had sworn fidelity to the new government, went over to him at the head of a force sent to arrest his progress; and on the evening of the 20th of March he re-entered the French capital, which Louis XVIII had left early in the morning. With the exception of Augereau, Marmont, Macdonald and a few others, all the officers, civil and military, embraced his cause. At the end of a month his authority was re-established throughout all France, and he again found himself at the summit of power by one of the most remarkable transitions recorded in history.

In vain Napoleon now attempted to open negotiations with the allied powers, and professed an ardent desire for peace; the allies denounced him as the common enemy of Europe, and refused to recognize his authority as emperor of the French people. All Europe was now in arms against the usurper, and it was estimated that, by the middle of summer, 600,000 effective men could be assembled against him on the French frontiers. But nothing which genius and activity could accomplish was wanting on the part of Napoleon to meet the coming storm; and in a country that seemed drained of men and money, he was able, by the 1st of June, to put on foot an army of 220,000 veterans who had served in his former wars.

WATERLOO.

His policy was to attack the allies in detail, before their forces could be concentrated, and with this view he hastened across the Belgian frontier on the 15th of June with a force numbering, at that point, 120,000 men. On the 16th he defeated the Prussians, under Blücher, at Ligny, but at the same time Ney was defeated by Wellington at Quatre Bras. The defeat of the Prussians induced Wellington to fall back upon Waterloo, where, at 11 o'clock on the morning of the 18th, he was attacked by Napoleon in person, while at the same time large bodies of French and Prussians were engaged at Wavre. On the field of Waterloo the combat raged during the day with terrific fury—Napoleon in vain hurling column after column upon the British lines, which withstood his assaults like a wall of adamant; and when, at 7 o'clock, in the evening he brought up the Imperial Guard for a final effort it was driven back in disorder. At the same time Blücher, coming up with the Prussians, completed the rout of the French army. The broken host fled in all directions, and Napoleon himself, hastening to Paris, was the herald of his own defeat. Once more the capital capitulated, and was occupied by foreign troops. Napoleon a second time abdicated the throne, and after vainly attempting to escape to America, surrendered himself to a British man-of-war. He was banished by the allies to the Island of St. Helena, where he died on the 5th of May, 1821, during one of the most violent tempests that had ever raged on the island—fitting time for the soul of Napoleon to take its departure. In his last moments his thoughts wandered to the scenes of his military glory, and his last words were those of command, as he fancied himself at the head of his armies.

RESTORATION OF THE BOURBONS.

After the capitulation of Paris, the tranquilization of France and the future peace and safety of Europe received the first attention of the allies. Louis XVIII, following in the rear of their armies, entered the capital on the 8th of July, but the French people felt too deeply the humiliation of defeat to express any joy at his restoration. The mournful tragedy which followed, in the execution of Marshal Ney and Labédoyère for high treason in favoring Napoleon's return from Elba, after the undoubted protection which had been guaranteed them by the capitulation of Paris, was a stain upon the character of the allies; and



ELIAS HOWE



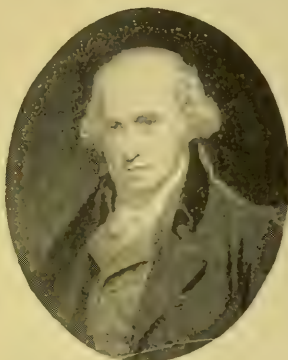
SAMUEL F B MORSE



ELI WHITNEY



ROBERT FULTON



JAMES WATT



ROBERT STEPHENSON



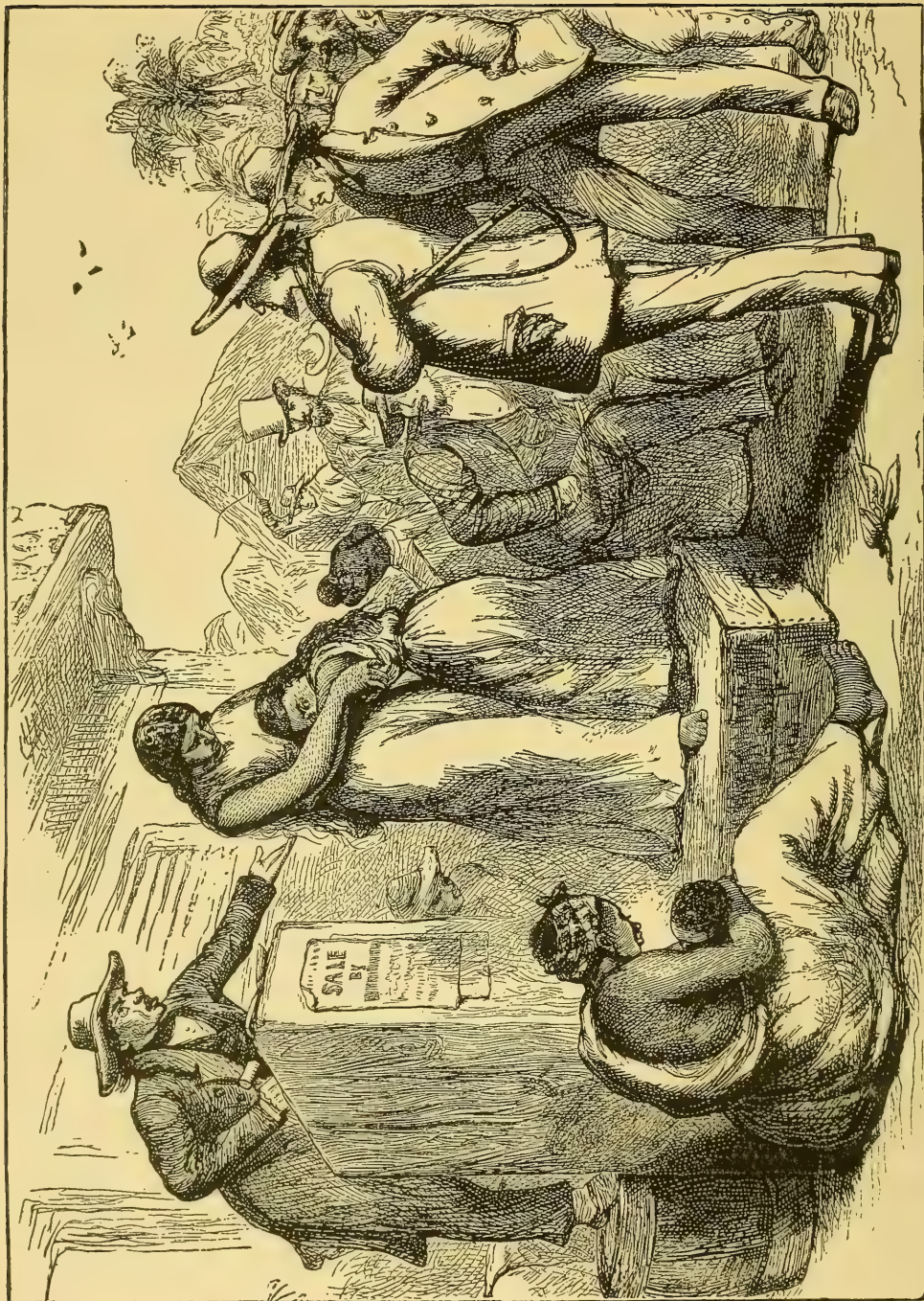
HENRY BESSEMER



LOUIS JACQUES DAGUERRE



ALFRED KRUPP



1810—SLAVE AUCTION IN ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA

although Ney's treason was beyond that of any other man, to the end of the world his guilt will be forgotten in the broken faith of his enemies and the tragic interest and noble heroism of his death. The fate of Murat, king of Naples, was equally mournful, but less unjust. On Napoleon's landing at Frejus he had made a diversion in his favor by breaking his alliance with Austria and commencing the war; but the cowardly Neapolitans were easily overthrown, and Murat was obliged to seek refuge in France. At the head of a few followers he afterwards made a descent upon the coast of Naples, in the hope of regaining his power; but being seized, he was tried by a military commission, condemned and executed.

THE SECOND PEACE OF PARIS.

On the 20th of November, 1815, the second treaty of Paris was concluded between France and the allied powers, by which the French frontier was narrowed to nearly the state in which it stood in 1790; twenty-eight million pounds sterling were to be paid by France for the expenses of the war, and a larger sum still for the spoliations which she had inflicted on other powers during her revolution, and for five years her frontier fortresses were to be placed in the hands of her recent enemies; while the vast treasures of art which adorned the museums of the Louvre—the trophies of a hundred victories—were to be restored to the States from which they had been pillaged by the orders of Napoleon.

CHAPTER VI.

**The War for Independence in South America—Simon Bolivar—Liberator and Dictator—La Puerta and San Marco—Republic of Bolivia—
Revolution of Mexico—Hidalgo—Death of Hidalgo—
Calleja—Russia and Turkey—Stories of the
Years—Scientific Progress.**

IN a former chapter we have told of the beginning of the war for independence begun by General Miranda in the northern part of the South American Continent.

The Spanish dominion continued but a few years longer. The great revolution burst out in 1810. The captain-general of Caracas was deposed on the 19th of April, and a popular congress convened to organize a new government for Venezuela. The same was done at Bogota the capital of New Grenada, which erected itself, at first, into a separate republic. The congress of Venezuela published a declaration of independence on the 5th of July, 1811, and this example was followed by the other provinces, which were afterwards united in the republic of Colombia.

The history of this revolution, like that of most others of the Spanish American States, is filled with a perplexing and most wearisome detail of political changes, party manœuvres, factions, intrigues, negotiations, plots and counter-plots, and marches and counter-marches of political and military leaders.

SIMON BOLIVAR.

The whole control of the revolution soon became engrossed in the hands of one individual, who, for many years, became the most prominent and powerful man in South America. This man was Simon Bolivar, a native of Caracas, who, as early as 1810, was sent to London as agent for the revolutionary government, to solicit aid from the British. That government, however, determined to remain neutral. Bolivar returned to Venezuela, where he was made colonel in the independent army, and

governor of Puerto Cabello. General Miranda had returned to this country, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces. The Spaniards sent armies into the country, and many actions were fought. The patriots were generally successful till 1812, when they experienced a terrible calamity. On the 26th of March, an earthquake destroyed, either entirely or in part, the city of Caracas, killing 20,000 persons. This was regarded by the superstitious people as a Divine rebuke to the revolution. Meantime the royalist troops were getting possession of the whole country. Miranda, in despair, capitulated, and was preparing to leave the country, when he was arrested by the patriots as a traitor. He was delivered up to the royalist general, Monteverde, and sent to Spain, where he died in a dungeon.

Venezuela was now entirely in the hands of the royalists, and deeds of revolting ferocity and plunder reduced the whole country to a frightful state of misery; old men, women and children were seized and massacred as rebels. One of Monteverde's officers cut off the ears of the patriots, and had them stuck in the caps of his soldiers for cockades. In this state of things, Bolivar began to show the firmness and energy of his character. He raised a small force, and in December, 1812, entered upon a campaign against the royalists. He defeated them at Teneriffe, Ocana and Cucuta, and by an expedition to Bogota, increased his army to 2000 men. Marching back, along the Andes, he invaded Venezuela, and defeated the royalists in several other battles. The war now assumed the most bloody character; the terrible cruelties of Monteverde obliged the patriots to commence reprisals, and the most horrible butcheries were the consequence. The cause of independence was now more prosperous. Bolivar defeated Monteverde at Lostaguanes, and on the 4th of August, 1814, he entered the city of Caracas in triumph. The joy of the people exceeded all bounds, and this was undoubtedly the most brilliant day in Bolivar's whole career. The whole population crowded to meet him with acclamations, and he was drawn into the city in a triumphal car by twelve beautiful young ladies, of the first families in Caracas, while others crowned him with laurels and strewed his way with flowers.

LIBERATOR AND DICTATOR.

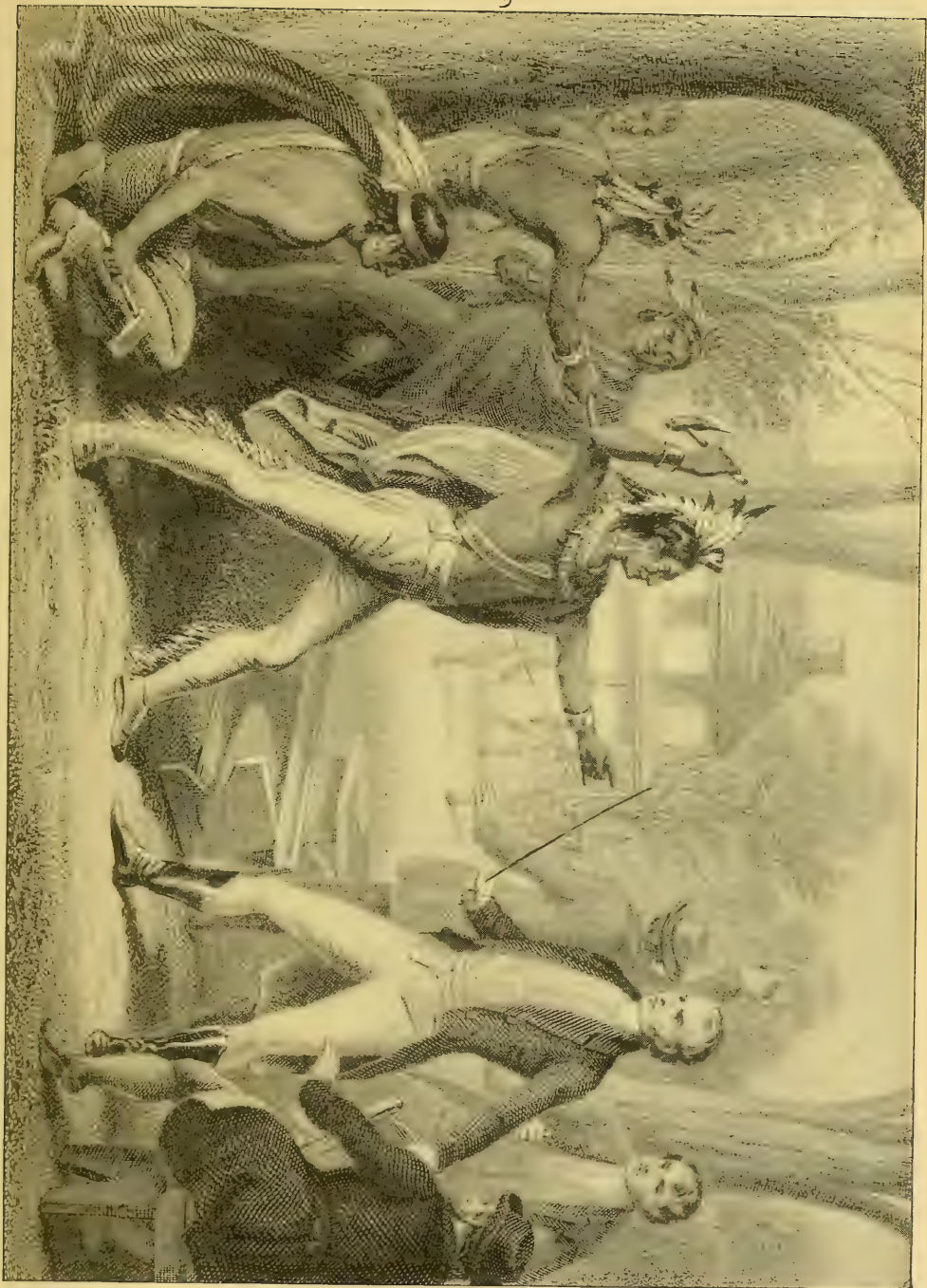
Bolivar was now in the possession of unlimited power in this part of the country, and assumed the title of Liberator and Dictator of the

western provinces of Venezuela. This gave great offence to the democratic party, and charges were uttered against him of studying his own aggrandizement ; yet the enthusiasm in his favor confirmed the dictatorial power in his hands. In the meantime, the royalists at a distance were still deluging the country with blood. Boves and Rosette, two of their generals, in a march of 400 miles from the Orinoco to the Ocumare, with an army of slaves and vagabonds, murdered every individual who refused to join them. General Puy, a negro assassin and a robber in the royal interest, having murdered hundreds of the patriot inhabitants of Varinas, Bolivar, to deter him from the repetition of such atrocities, ordered 800 Spaniards in La Guayra and Caracas to be arrested and shot, in February, 1814. This was retaliated by the royalists, who massacred their prisoners in Puerto Cabello. The patriots, however, did not repeat these dreadful reprisals, and Bolivar, in July, 1816, formally proclaimed, "No Spaniard shall be put to death except in battle : the war of death shall cease."

LA PUERTA AND SAN MARCO.

Success continued to fluctuate between the patriots and royalists. On the 14th of June, 1814, a battle was fought at La Puerta, in which Bolivar was defeated, with a loss of 1500 men. Another action occurred on the 17th of August, at San Marco, the estate of Bolivar. Here the Liberator's army was surprised by the "infernal division" of Boves, a legion of negro cavalry, with black crape on their lances, who rushed with hideous shouts from an ambush, and scattered Bolivar's whole force by the suddenness and impetuosity of their assault ; the general escaped only by the fleetness of his horse. Bolivar's family mansion was burnt to the ground, and he was ultimately compelled, in September, to leave the royalists in possession of all Venezuela, when thousands of the patriots deserted to their ranks. He repaired to New Grenada, where the government employed him in their army to subjugate the revolted province of Cundinamarca. Bolivar captured the city of Bogota, which afterwards became the capital of Colombia. He returned to Venezuela in 1816, but was again defeated. Notwithstanding, he persevered in his exertions, and in December of the same year, he convened a general congress. In March, 1817, he was enabled to give the royalists a severe check.

1811—GENERAL HARRISON AND TECUMSEH—THE INDIAN CHIEF





1811—COURSE OF THE GREAT COMET NEAR THE RHINE, GERMANY

Numerous transactions took place between the patriot and royalist forces during this and the following year, but our limits will not admit of a detailed account of them; victory remained nearly balanced between the two parties, but the cause of independence was gaining strength.

REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA.

The republic of Bolivia was formed out of the provinces of Upper Peru, which under the Spanish dominion were governed as a dependency of Buenos Ayres. These provinces were wrested from the Spaniards by the victory of Ayacucho, in December, 1828. General Sucre, who, at the head of the Colombian forces, gained this victory, soon cleared the country of the royalist forces, and no obstacle existed to the formation of an independent government. A congress assembled at Chuquisaca, in August, 1825, and lodged the supreme authority provisionally in the hands of Sucre, while, as a testimonial of their gratitude to Bolivar, they requested him to frame a constitution for them. Bolivar accordingly drew up a plan of government, founded on a representative basis but of a very complicated and inconvenient character. The chief magistrate is a president who appoints his own successor, nominates to all offices, exercises the whole patronage of the government, and is irresponsible for his actions. This constitution was adopted by the congress, and went into operation in December, 1826.

REVOLUTION OF MEXICO.

The revolutionary conspiracies in Mexico, which began in 1808, culminated in the seizure of the Spanish Viceroy by the chief Spaniards, and the sending him a prisoner to Spain, while the reins of government were assumed by a committee of Spaniards, to save the country from falling into the hands of the Creoles and Indians. The Spanish Government sent a new viceroy, who encountered new plots and troubles. Finally, in 1810, an insurrection of natives rose openly against the government.

HIDALGO.

These men were led by Hidalgo, a priest of some talents, and an enthusiast in the cause of independence. From Dolores, where they first assembled, they marched upon the wealthy city of Guanajuato, which they took and pillaged. The viceroy dispatched his forces to sup-

press the rebellion, but the whole country through which Hidalgo passed took up arms and joined him. Acting with great policy, he abolished the tribute paid by the aborigines, which brought all the Indians to his standard. Valladolid fell into his hands, and on the 24th of October, the priest Hidalgo was proclaimed generalissimo of the Mexican armies. On this occasion he threw aside his sacerdotal robes and appeared in uniform. He advanced upon the capital, and in three days entered Toluco, not more than twelve miles from Mexico. The royal forces were scattered throughout the country, and Mexico was in imminent danger. After some skirmishes the independent army approached to the heights of Santa Fe, where the royalists, with a much inferior force, were drawn up to defend the city. Mexico was on the point of seeing a conquering army enter her gates, when, to the astonishment of every spectator, Hidalgo suddenly wheeled to the right-about, and marched away. This extraordinary proceeding was never explained.

DEATH OF HIDALGO.

Hidalgo retreated to the neighborhood of Guadalajara. The royalists now had leisure to collect a strong force, and pursued him. A sanguinary battle was fought on the 17th of January, 1811, which ended in the total defeat and dispersion of the independent army. Hidalgo made his escape, but was closely pursued from post to post, till at length his retreat was cut off; when, by the treachery of one of his own men, he was betrayed and made prisoner with all his staff, on the 21st of March. Fifty of his officers were executed on the spot. Hidalgo was tried and shot, at Chihuahua, on the 20th of June, 1811.

The death of Hidalgo did not stop the progress of the revolution in other quarters. In the meantime, the whole country had risen in insurrection, and many leaders began to act separately. The most remarkable among them was Morelos, another priest, who, with great activity, talents and success, maintained the rebellion in the southern provinces, and organized a junta or central government, which, in September, 1811, assembled at Zacaturo, in Mechoacan. This town was soon after captured by Calleja, a royalist general, and the junta dispersed. Morelos penetrated into the highlands of Tenochtitlan, where he fought many battles with Calleja during a period of three months. He took Acapulco, Oaxaca, and many other towns, and convened a congress at Apatzinjan.

in the province of Valladolid. This congress took the name of the National Assembly, and declared the independence of Mexico on the 13th of November, 1813. A constitution was framed, and proposals for a suspension of hostilities were made to the royalists, but without effect.

CALLEJA.

Calleja, who was now appointed viceroy, prosecuted the war with barbarous cruelty. Morelos involved himself in difficulties by surrendering his authority to the congress at this critical period. All his military plans were defeated by the interference and delays of that body, and he no longer met with any success, and in November, 1815, he was taken prisoner, carried to Mexico and shot.

The war was feebly carried on until the arrival of a new partisan from Europe. This was General Mina, nephew of the guerrilla chief, so celebrated in the war in Spain. He sailed from England with a small force in May, 1816, and after visiting the United States, where he received some reinforcements, he landed at Galveston in November. There he organized his forces, proceeded to Soto la Marina, in April, 1817, and took up his march for Mexico. After valiant struggles, however, he was totally defeated, taken prisoner, and put to death. Thereafter the revolution languished, and before long was practically extinguished.

RUSSIA AND TURKEY.

The antagonism between Russia and Turkey continued. Russia, on one pretext or another, constantly pressed her aggressions against the Ottoman Empire, and steadily gained ground. In 1810 the Russian General Kamenskoi conducted a campaign in Bulgaria, and was generally successful, though he received a check at Shumla. The next year Kutusoff carried on the war against the Turks along the Danube, with some success. The war ended in May, 1812, when the peace of Bucharest was concluded and the River Pruth was made the boundary between the two empires.

In another part of the Moslem world the year 1811 was marked by a stupendous tragedy. This was the massacre of the Mamelukes, at Cairo, by Mehemet Ali. This act was deemed necessary, on account of the insubordinate disposition of the Mamelukes. But by it Egypt and the Moslem world lost its most effective body of fighting men.

Russia, in 1814, concluded with Persia a treaty at Tiflis, called the Peace of Gulistan, under which Persia was compelled to cede to Russia a large region, including Daghestan, Shirvan, Baku, and other territories.

The year 1815 saw the Ionian Islands made into a republic under the protectorate of Great Britain. At the same time Milosh Obrenovitch headed a new insurrection of the Servian people against Turkish rule, and thus founded the Obrenovitch dynasty in that country. He was chosen Prince of Servia in 1817.

STORIES OF THE YEARS.

We may well review in brief the salient incidents of the time, year by year. In 1809 Haydn, one of the greatest of musicians, died. King George III. of Great Britain became hopelessly insane in 1810, and the affairs of State had to be entrusted thereafter to a Regency. In the same year Bernadotte, who had been one of Bonaparte's marshals, was proclaimed Crown Prince of Sweden, and thus the way was opened for the establishment of the present dynasty in that kingdom. The opening of the University of Berlin was in the same year an incident of significance in the intellectual world.

The year 1811 saw the British conquest of Java, which island was afterwards restored to the Dutch. In this year Niebuhr began the publication of his famous historical works. A more sensational literary incident was the publication of the first part of Byron's "Childe Harold" in 1812, in which the world perceived the advent of one of the greatest poets of all time. American literature was promoted by the foundation of "The North American Review."

SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS

The year 1814 was marked in the scientific world by the introduction of illuminating gas in the city of London, and by the death of Count Rumford, one of the ablest scientists of his day as well as a conspicuous statesman. The death of Fichte occurred in the same year; the successor of Kant and the second of the four great German philosophers. In the preceding year, 1813, the world suffered loss in the death of Wieland and Delille, the poets, and of Lagrange, the illustrious geometer, who formulated the scientific doctrines of planetary orbits. In these years the world was making steady and even rapid progress in the ways of civilization and of scientific and literary achievement.

CHAPTER VII.

James Monroe Becomes President of the United States—Acquisition of Florida—The Monroe Doctrine—Three New States—The Missouri Compromise—Treaties and Controversies—Lafayette—The Pension System—Revision of the Tariff—Re-election of Mr. Monroe.

MR. MADISON, after having filled the office of President eight years, was succeeded, in 1817, by James Monroe, who had held the office of Secretary of State during most of the time of Mr. Madison's administration. In 1821, Mr. Monroe wanted only a single vote of a unanimous re-election.

During Mr. Monroe's administration the United States were at peace, with the exception of a war with the Seminole and Creek Indians, and the prosperity of the country, which had been interrupted in the war with England, was gradually restored.

Mr. Monroe was the possessor of a sound and discriminating judgment, and a remarkably calm and quiet temperament. In not a few of the qualities of his mind he resembled Washington, and, like that great and good man, apparently had the true interests of his country in view in the acts and measures of his administration. He may be said to be fortunate in respect to the time and circumstances of his accession to the presidency. A war, of whose justice and expediency a respectable portion of the country had strong doubts—and as to which, therefore, loud and even angry debate had existed, both in Congress and throughout the country—that war had terminated, and the asperities growing out of different views entertained of it were fast subsiding. Commerce, too, was beginning to revive, and the manufacturers were hoping for more auspicious days. In every department of industry there was the commencement of activity; and, although the country had suffered too long and too seriously to regain at once her former prosperity, hopes of better times were indulged, and great confidence was reposed in the wise and prudent counsels of the new President

It was during his administration that, after various minor changes of pattern, the United States flag was finally adopted in its present form, and the foundation of the present Capitol building was laid at Washington.

ACQUISITION OF FLORIDA.

The first important incident of President Monroe's administration was another of those Indian wars which were so numerous in the early history of this country. At that time Florida still belonged to Spain, and was largely occupied by the Seminole Indians. The Seminoles were a warlike and powerful tribe, possessing not only horses and cattle, but also many human slaves. They were much given to raiding adjoining territories, especially the country of the Creek Indians in Georgia. To put a stop to this, General Jackson, the hero of the battle of New Orleans, went against them with an army of 4000 men, many of whom were Creeks. He not only drove the Seminoles out of Georgia, but followed them into the Spanish territory of Florida, and there captured several Spanish forts behind which they had taken refuge. This invasion of a Spanish province, at a time when the United States was at peace with Spain, was bitterly resented by the Spanish government. Owing, however, to troubles at home caused by the Napoleonic wars, Spain did not see fit to resort to extreme measures, but presently concluded a treaty with the United States by which she agreed to sell to this country the whole territory of Florida for the sum of \$5,000,000. This was done in 1819. The territory of Florida itself was well worth the money. But, in addition, the United States acquired under the same treaty all of Spain's rights and title to all the country west of the Louisiana purchase, including California and Oregon.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

The incident of President Monroe's administration which makes the greatest mark in history, and by which Mr. Monroe himself is best remembered, was the enunciation of what is known as the "Monroe Doctrine." At that time, as is related elsewhere in this volume, the chief continental powers of Europe, under the lead of Russia, formed a so-called Holy Alliance, the object of which was to maintain and extend monarchical institutions throughout the world, and to repress, if not to suppress, civil and religious liberty. Great Britain was strongly

opposed to this Alliance, realizing its serious menace to progress and civilization. The British Foreign Minister of that time, the illustrious George Canning, suggested to John Quincy Adams, Mr. Monroe's Secretary of State, that the objects of the Alliance were inimical to the United States, and that some concert of action toward it between Great Britain and this country might be desirable. The result was that, in his message to Congress in the fall of 1823, President Monroe set forth in emphatic language the doctrine which bears his name. This was, in brief, an announcement to all the world that, while the United States would not interfere with such possessions as the monarchical powers of Europe then had upon the American continents, it would not permit them to extend those possessions at the expense and to the oppression of the independent republics already existing here; and he asserted that, "as a principle, the American continents are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." At this time the various States of South and Central America had practically won their independence from Spain, and the Monroe Doctrine was therefore practically an act of protection extended over them to prevent the reconquest of them that was threatened by the Holy Alliance. Since that date the Monroe Doctrine has formed an integral part of the foreign policy of the United States, and has been respected by the world.

THREE NEW STATES.

The acquisition of Florida greatly promoted colonization and general development of the region bordering upon the Gulf of Mexico. The region now forming the States of Mississippi and Alabama had been known as the Mississippi Territory. It was now divided into two Territories, known as Mississippi and Alabama. The former was admitted into the Union as a State in 1817 and the latter in 1819. These were both slave States. At a date between the two, in 1818, Illinois was admitted into the Union as a free State. Arkansas was erected into a Territory.

THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE.

At about this time the great controversy over slavery began. It had its origin in the request of the people of Maine and Missouri to have those Territories erected into States. Maine had hitherto belonged to Massachusetts, but the people desired to be set off from that State,

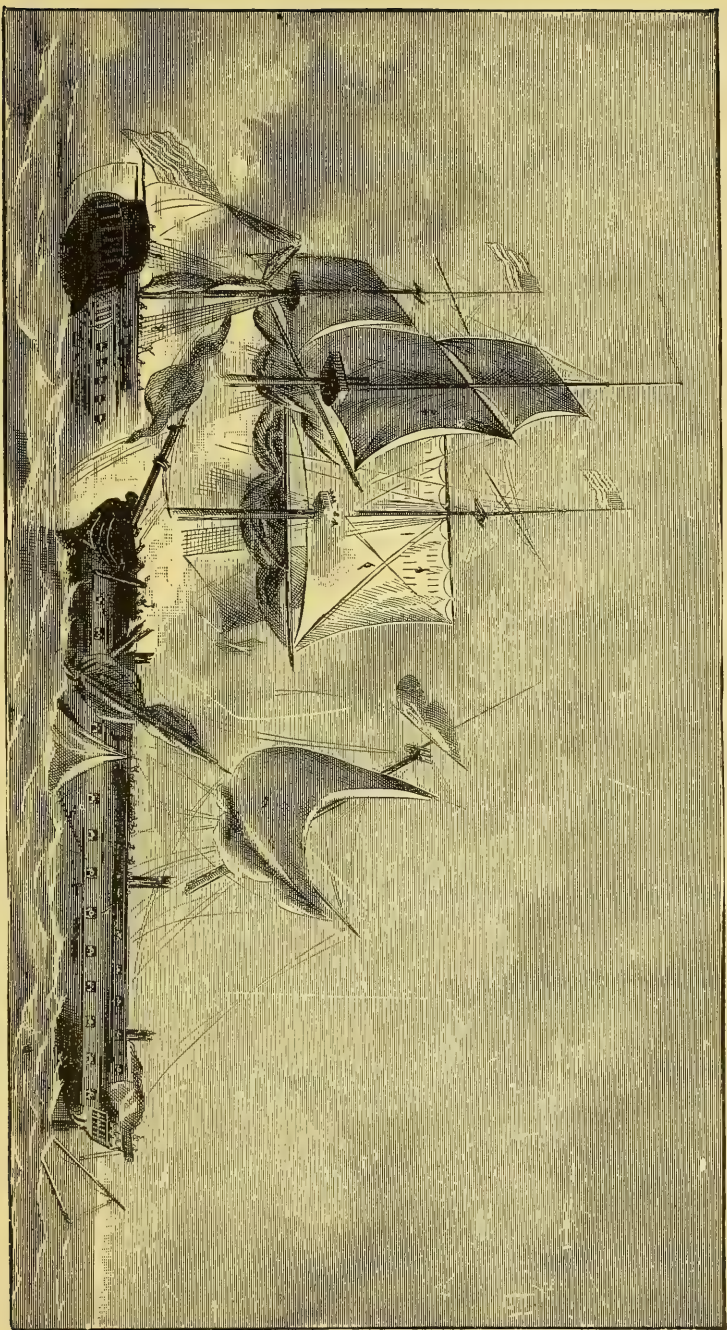
and remained an independent member of the Union. They meant, of course, that it should be a free State, and they inserted in the constitution which they adopted a clause forever forbidding slavery. To admit Maine as a State would therefore increase the power of the free States in Congress, and this was objected to by the slave States of the South. Then there came a request from the people of Missouri for the admission of that Territory as a State. They were willing, and, in fact, desirous, that it should be a slave State. After a long controversy in Congress the matter was finally settled by the adoption of what has ever since been known as the Missouri Compromise. This became law in 1820. Under it slavery was permitted to exist in Missouri and in all Territories south of the line of 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, but all territory north of that line was forever to be kept free from slavery. Under this agreement Maine was admitted as a State in 1820, and Missouri was similarly admitted in 1821.

TREATIES AND CONTROVERSIES.

During Mr. Monroe's administration a new treaty was concluded with Great Britain, and another treaty was made with Russia. At the same time there arose the beginning of what was destined to be a formidable controversy over the ownership of the Oregon Territory, and the way was opened for the famous war-cry of "Fifty-four Forty or Fight!" of which we shall hear more in a later chapter.

LAFAYETTE.

The year 1824 was made memorable by the visit to this country of the Marquis de Lafayette. This was an incident of great interest to the whole nation. As the friend, benefactor and ally of the Americans during the Revolution, he was remembered with lively gratitude after his return to his native land, and his subsequent history had been traced by many among us with deep concern, as well as admiration. Nearly half a century had elapsed, since he came as a youthful, devoted adventurer to our shores, in the cause of freedom, and age was now stealing over him, with its usual effects on the human frame. Before the close of life, he wished once more to revisit the scenes of his early conflicts; and, having intimated his intention of coming to this country, the people were prepared to give him a welcome and enthusiastic reception.



1812—CAPTURE OF THE "GUERRIERE" BY THE "CONSTITUTION"



1812—NAPOLEON ON THE ROAD TO RUSSIA

He landed at New York, on the 16th of August, accompanied by his son, and M. L. Vasseur, his secretary. His entrance into the city was more than a Roman triumphal procession. Splendid as it was, it was more remarkable as the tribute of the concentrated heart of America, in its great commercial capital. He was met by one universal burst of grateful enthusiasm.

In the course of about a year, he visited each of the twenty-four States, and most of the principal cities of the land, and was everywhere received with the like spirit of enthusiasm and gratitude.

He was present on the occasion of laying the corner-stone of the Bunker Hill monument, and assisted, as was most befitting he should, in laying its corner-stone. His presence added greatly to the interest of the occasion, and long will it be remembered with what enthusiasm his presence was greeted.

THE PENSION SYSTEM.

In 1818, a law was passed by Congress, granting pensions to the surviving officers and soldiers of the Revolutionary War, which included all who had served nine months in the Continental Army at any period of the war, provided it was at one term of enlistment. Another act of Congress, following at the expiration of two years, modified, and, in some degree, restricted this law, by confining the pension to those who were in destitute circumstances. Still, under this condition, the number who received the bounty, or, rather, the justice of their country, was very large, not less than 13,000 having experienced the grateful relief. Through the inability of the government, soon after the war, these soldiers who had so largely contributed to the liberties of their country had never been duly compensated. They now received a welcome, though late, remuneration.

REVISION OF THE TARIFF

A law was passed by Congress, on the subject of the tariff, in May, 1824, embracing the revision and alteration of the tariff which had heretofore existed. Except a slight protection to coarse cotton cloths, nothing had been done to encourage the manufactures of the country. The attention of the people had been, for a long time, turned towards the subject, and Congress had debated it at different periods, but very little had been effected. Such was the state of things from 1816 to 1824.

On the part of many citizens, great zeal had been manifested in favor of manufactures among us. Numbers, especially in the Northern and Eastern States, owing to the impediments which existed in the prosecution of commerce and navigation, by the restrictive measures of the government, as well as by the war, had engaged in the business of manufacturing. By their energy, perseverance, and economy, they had attained to a measure of success; but still, some public enactments were wanting to give due encouragement to the general interests of manufactures.

RE-ELECTION OF MR. MONROE.

In March, 1821, Mr. Monroe entered upon his second term of office, having been re-elected President by nearly a unanimous vote. Mr. Tompkins was also continued in the Vice-Presidency. In fact, only one electoral vote was cast against Mr. Monroe, and that was cast by a New Hampshire elector, for John Quincy Adams. The elector explained that he really favored Mr. Monroe's re-election, but did not think it fitting that any man, save only Washington, should have a unanimous vote. It being understood that, according to the example of his predecessors, Mr. Monroe would retire at the expiration of his second term, the subject of his successor was early introduced to the nation. Several candidates were put in nomination, and the claims of each were duly urged by their respective friends and supporters.

CHAPTER VIII.

**Treaty of Paris—Reaction in Europe—The Manchester Meeting—The
Barbary Pirates—Disquiet in France—Rebellion in Spain—Revolution
in Portugal—Naples and Sicily—Revolution in Piedmont
—Congress at Carlsbad—The Greek Revolution—Independence
Proclaimed—Turkish Atrocities—The Greek Constitution—The Destruction of Scio
—Marco Bozzaris—Byron at Missolonghi—The Egyptian Fleet at
Navarino.**

ON the day of the signing of the treaty of Paris, another was concluded between Russia, Prussia, Austria and England, designed as a measure of security for the allied powers, and declaring that Napoleon Bonaparte and his family should be forever excluded from the throne of France. On the same day a third treaty, of notorious celebrity, called "The Holy Alliance," was subscribed by the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the King of Prussia, who bound themselves, "in conformity with the principles of Holy Scripture, to lend each other aid, assistance and succor, on every occasion." This treaty was, ere long, acceded to by nearly all the Continental powers as parties to the compact, although the ruling Prince of England declined signing it, on the ground that the English Constitution prevented him from becoming a party to any convention that was not countersigned by a responsible Minister.

REACTION IN EUROPE.

The terms of the Holy Alliance were drawn by the young Russian Emperor, Alexander, whose enthusiastic benevolence prompted him to devise a plan of a common international law that should substitute the peaceful reign of the Gospel in place of the rude empire of the sword. But the law of the Holy Alliance, although beneficent in its origin, was to

be interrupted by absolute monarchs ; as it was evident that its only active principle would be the maintenance of despotic power, under the mask of piety and religion, it was justly regarded with dread and jealousy by the Liberal party throughout Europe, and was, in reality, made a convenient pretext for enforcing the doctrine of passive obedience and resisting all efforts for the establishment of constitutional freedom.

The English Government, wiser than the Continental powers, has ever had the prudence to make reasonable concessions to reasonable popular demands, before the spark of discontent has been blown into the blaze of revolution ; and now, after a spirited contest, a heavy property tax, that had been patiently submitted to as a necessary war measure, was repealed amid the universal transports of the people ; the remission of other taxes followed, and in one year a reduction of £35,000,000 sterling was made from the national expenditure, although strongly opposed by the Ministry. Still the distress continued ; the popular feeling against the Government increased ; numerous secret political societies were organized among the dissatisfied ; and early in the following year (1817) a committee of Parliament reported that an extensive conspiracy existed, chiefly in the great towns and manufacturing districts, for the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a republic in its stead.

THE MANCHESTER MEETING.

In consequence of the information, greatly exaggerated, which had been communicated to the committee, Ministers were enabled to carry through Parliament bills for suspending the privileges of the writ of habeas corpus, and for suppressing tumultuous meetings, debating societies and all unlawful organizations. Armed with extensive powers, the Government took the most active measures for putting a stop to the threatened insurrection ; a few mobs were suppressed ; many persons were arrested on the charge of high treason ; and several were convicted and suffered death. In 1819 a large and peaceable meeting at Manchester, assembled to discuss the question of parliamentary reforms, was charged by the military, and many lives inhumanly sacrificed ; but all attempts in Parliament for an inquiry into the conduct of the Manchester magistrates, under whose orders the military had acted, were defeated. Although the people still justly complained of grievous burdens of tax-



1812—NAPOLEON RETREATING FROM MOSCOW



1813—PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE

ation and unequal representation in Parliament, those evils were not so oppressive as to induce them to incur the hazards of revolution ; and the Government, having yielded to the point where danger was past, was sufficiently strong to carry all its important measures.

The illustrious George Canning now came to the fore in English politics, and while he lived exerted a salutary influence upon them in the direction of progress, freedom and human rights the world over.

Early in 1820 King George III, of England, died after one of the longest and most eventful reigns on record, and was succeeded by his son, George IV.

THE BARBARY PIRATES.

An event of general interest that occurred soon after the close of the European war was the merited chastisement of the piratical State of Algiers. During a long period the Barbary powers had carried on piratical warfare against those nations that were not sufficiently powerful to prevent or punish their depredations. From the year 1795 to 1812 the United States of America had preserved peace with Algiers by the payment of an annual tribute ; but in the latter year the Dey, believing that the war with England would prevent their commerce in the Mediterranean, commenced a piratical warfare against all American vessels that fell in the way of his cruisers. In the month of June, 1815, an American squadron, under the command of Commodore Decatur, being sent to the Mediterranean, after capturing several Algerian vessels, compelled Algiers, Tripoli and Tunis to release all American prisoners in their possession, pay large sums of money, and relinquish all future claims to tribute from the United States.

In the following year the continued piracies of Algerines upon some of the smaller European States that claimed the protection of England, induced the British Government to send out a powerful squadron, with directions to obtain from the Dey unqualified abolition of Christian slavery, or, in case of refusal, to destroy, if possible, the nest of pirates whose tolerance had so long been a disgrace to Christendom. On the 27th of August, 1816, the British fleet, commanded by Lord Exmouth, appeared before Algiers, whose fortifications, admirably constructed and of the hardest stone, were defended by nearly 500 cannons and 40,000 men. No answer being returned to the demands of the British Government, the attack was commenced in the afternoon of the same day ; and

although the defence was most spirited, by ten in the evening all the fortifications that defended the approaches by sea were totally ruined, while the shot and shells had carried destruction and death throughout the city. On the following morning the Dey submitted, agreeing to abolish Christian slavery forever, and immediately restoring 1200 captives to their country and friends. The total number liberated by Algiers, Tripoli and Tunis was more than 3000.

The humiliation of the piratical Barbary powers by the Americans in 1815 and the battle of Algiers in the following year, were events highly important to the general interests of humanity, not only from their immediate results, but as the beginning of the decisive ascendancy of the Christian over the Mohammedan world.

DISQUIET IN FRANCE.

The situation of France at the second restoration of Louis XVIII, with a vast foreign army quartered upon her people, an empty treasury, and an unsettled government, was gloomy in the extreme. With a vacillation peculiar to the French people public opinion had already turned against the Bonapartes and the Republicans, who were regarded as the authors of all the evils which the nation suffered; and the King soon found himself seriously embarrassed by order of his own friends.

The year 1818 saw the Congress of the great Powers at Aix-la-Chapelle and the final withdrawal of the foreign armies from France. In the same year Bernadotte, who had been one of Napoleon's marshals, became King of Sweden and Norway. The Duke of Berry, second son of the future King Charles X, of France, was assassinated in 1820, a serious blow to the Bourbon dynasty.

On the death of Louis XVIII, in 1824, the crown of France fell to his brother, Charles X, who commenced his rule by a declaration of his intentions of confirming the constitutional charter that had been granted the French people at the time of the first restoration. But the new King bitterly opposed to the principles of the Revolution, and governed by the counsels of bigoted priests, labored to build up an absolute Monarchy, with a privileged nobility and clergy for its support; while, on the other hand, the people, persuaded that a plot was formed to deprive them of their constitutional privileges, talked of open resistance to the arbitrary commands of the court.

REBELLION IN SPAIN.

During the period of general peace, from 1815 to 1820, Spain, under the rule of the restored Ferdinand, was in a state of constant political agitation ; and in 1820 an insurrection of the soldiery compelled the King to restore to his subjects the free and almost republican constitution of 1812. The Republicans, however, who thus obtained the direction of the Government, showed little wisdom or moderation ; and a large party, directed by the monks and friars, and supported by the lower ranks of the populace, was formed for the restoration of the monarchy. Several of the European powers, in a congress held at Verona, adopted a resolution to support the authority of the King in opposition to the constitution which he had granted ; but England stood aloof, and to France was entrusted the execution of the odious measure of suppressing democratic principles in Spain.

Accordingly, early in the year 1823, a French army of a 100,000 men, under the command of the Duke d'Angoulême, entered Spain ; the patriots made a feeble resistance, and the King was soon restored to absolute authority on the ruins of the constitution. The remainder of the reign of Ferdinand, who died in 1833, was characterized by the complete suppression of all liberal principles in politics and religion, and the revival of the ancient abuses which had so long disgraced the Spanish monarchy. England and the United States severely censured the interference of France in the domestic affairs of the Spanish nation, showed their sympathy with the cause of the oppressed by recognizing, at as early a period as possible, the independence of the Spanish South American Republics, which had recently renounced their allegiance to Spain.

REVOLUTION IN PORTUGAL.

The adjoining kingdom of Portugal was a prey to similar commotions. The emigration of the King and court to Brazil during the Peninsular war, has already been mentioned. The nation being dissatisfied with the continued residence of the court in Brazil, which, in fact, made Portugal a dependency of the latter, and desiring some fundamental changes in the form of government, at length, in August, 1820, a revolution broke out, and a free constitution was soon after established, having for its basis the abolition of privileges, the legal equality of all classes, the freedom of the press, and the formation of a representative

body in the national legislature. The constitution, being violently opposed by the clergy and privileged classes, who formed what was called the Apostolical party, at the head of whom was Dom Miguel, the King's younger son, was suppressed in 1823, and a state of monarchy continued until the death of the King in 1826, when the crown fell to Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil.

Dom Pedro, however, resigned his right in favor of his infant daughter, Donna Maria, at the same time granting to Portugal a constitutional charter, and appointing his brother, Dom Miguel, Regent. Although the latter took an oath of fidelity to the charter, he soon began openly to aspire to the throne, and by means of an artful priesthood, caused himself, in 1829, to be proclaimed Sovereign of Portugal, while the charter was denounced as inconsistent with the purity of the Roman faith. The friends of the charter, aided by Dom Pedro, who repaired to Europe to assert the rights of his daughter, organized a resistance, and after a sanguinary struggle, during which they were once driven into exile, they obtained the promise of support from France, Spain and England, who, in 1834, entered into a convention to expel the younger brother from the Portuguese territories. Soon after Dom Miguel gave up his pretensions, and the young Queen was placed upon the throne.

NAPLES AND SICILY.

The kingdom of Naples, embracing Sicily and southern Italy, nearly identical with the Magna Græcia of antiquity, had been erected into an independent monarchy in 1734, under the Infanta Don Carlos, of Spain, who took the name of Charles III. It continued under a succession of tyrannical and imbecile rulers of the Bourbon dynasty till 1798. The Italian portion of the kingdom was then overrun by the French, who held it from 1803 to 1815, when it reverted to its former sovereign, Ferdinand, who, during the French rule, had maintained his court in the Sicilian part of the kingdom.

Under the rule of Ferdinand popular education was wholly neglected, the roads, bridges and other public works which the French had either planned or executed were left unfinished or fell into decay, and yet the people were oppressively taxed, and a representative government was denied them. At length, on the 2d of July, 1820, the growing discontents of the people broke out in open insurrection, and

a remonstrance was sent to the Government demanding a representative constitution. One based on the Spanish constitution of 1812 was immediately granted, and the Neapolitan parliament was opened on the 1st of October following; but, on the same month, a convention of the three crowned heads who formed the Holy Alliance, attended by ministers from most of the other European powers, met at Laybach, and it was there resolved by the sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia to put down the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms.

France approved the measure, but the British Cabinet remained neutral. The old King Ferdinand, who had been invited to visit the sovereigns at Laybach, was easily convinced that his promises had been extorted, and therefore were not binding, and Austrian troops immediately prepared to execute the resolutions of the congress, while the aid of a Russian army was promised, if necessary. An Austrian force of 43,000 men entered the Neapolitan territory, heralded by a proclamation from Ferdinand, calling his subjects to receive the invaders as friends. A few slight skirmishes took place, but the country was quickly overrun, foreign troops garrisoned the fortresses, the king's promise of complete amnesty was forgotten, and courts-martial and execution closed the brief drama of the Neapolitan revolution.

REVOLUTION IN PIEDMONT.

Piedmont was the principal province of the Sardinian monarchy, and the latter, first recognized as a separate kingdom by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, comprised the whole of northern Italy west of the Tessino, together with the island of Sardinia in the Mediterranean. The Piedmontese, never considering themselves properly as Italians, had been proud of their annexation to France under the rule of Napoleon, and on the restoration of the monarchy they were the first of the Sardinian people to exhibit the liberal principles of the French Revolutionists and to complain of the oppressive exactions imposed upon them by the Government.

Scarcely had the Neapolitan revolution been suppressed, when an insurrection, beginning with the military, broke out in Piedmont. On the 10th of March, 1821, several regiments of troops simultaneously mutinied; and it is believed that the malcontents were secretly favored by Charles Albert, a kinsman of the royal family, who afterwards became

king of Sardinia. The seizure of the citadel of Turin, on the 12th, was followed, on the 13th, by the abdication of the king, Victor Emanuel, in favor of his absent brother, Charles Felix, and the appointment of Prince Albert as regent. While efforts were made to organize a government, an Austrian army was assembled in Lombardy to put down the revolution; the new king repudiated the acts of the regent, who threw himself on the Austrians for protection; on the 8th of April the insurgents were overthrown in battle, and on the 10th the combined royal and Austrian troops were in possession of the whole country. In Piedmont, as in Naples, Austrian interference, ever exerted on the side of tyranny, suppressed every germ of constitutional freedom.

CONGRESS AT CARLSBAD.

The famous Congress of Carlsbad was held in 1819. This was composed of the heads of the various German States. A resolution was adopted directed against freedom of the press and against freedom of teaching in the universities. It was, in a measure, a counter-movement against the patriotic associations of students which had been formed a few years before. In it, too, were the first beginnings of the German Zollverein, or customs union, which afterward played so important a part in leading to the organization of the new German Empire.

THE GREEK REVOLUTION.

In the year 1481, Greece, the early and favored seat of art, science and literature, was conquered by the Turks, after a sanguinary contest of more than forty years. The Venetians, however, were not disposed to allow its new masters quiet possession of the country, and during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it was the theatre of obstinate wars between them and the Turks, which continued till 1718, when the Turks were confirmed in their conquest by treaty. Although the Turks and Greeks never became one nation, and the relation of conquerors and conquered never ceased, yet the Turkish rule was quietly submitted to until 1821, when, according to previous arrangements, on the 7th of March, Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, and then a major-general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, at the same time assuring his countrymen of the aid of Russia in the approaching contest. But the Russian emperor declined intervention;

the Porte took the most rigorous measures against the Greeks, and called upon all Mussulmans to arm against the rebels for the protection of Islamism; the wildest fanaticism raged in Constantinople, where hundreds of the resident Greeks were remorselessly murdered, and in Moldavia the bloody struggle was terminated with the annihilation of the patriot army and the flight of Ypsilanti to Trieste, where the Austrian Government seized and imprisoned him.

INDEPENDENCE PROCLAIMED.

In southern Greece no cruelties could quench the fire of liberty, and sixteen days after the proclamation of Ypsilanti the Revolution of the Morea began at Suda, a large village in the northern part of Achaia, where eighty Turks were made prisoners. The revolution rapidly spread over the Morea and the islands of the Ægean; the ancient names were revived; and, on the 6th of April, the Messenian Senate, assembled at Kalamatia, proclaimed that Greece had shaken off the Turkish yoke to save the Christian faith and restore the ancient character of the country. From that time the Greeks found friends wherever free principles were cherished; and from England and the United States large contributions of clothing and provisions were forwarded to relieve the sufferings inflicted by the wanton atrocities of the Turks.

TURKISH ATROCITIES.

During the summer months the Turks committed great depredations among the Greek towns on the coast of Asia Minor; the inhabitants of the island of Candia, who had taken no part in the insurrection, were disarmed, and the archbishops and many of the priests executed; in Cyprus, where also there had been no appearances of insurrection, the Greeks were disarmed, and their archbishop and other prelates murdered. The most barbarous atrocities were also committed at Rhodes and other islands of the Grecian Archipelago, where the villages were burned and the country desolated. But when, in August, the Greeks captured the strong Turkish fortresses of Monembasia and Navarino, and, in October, that of Tripolitza, they took a terrible revenge upon their enemies, and in Tripolitza alone 8000 Turks were put to death.

On the 5th and 6th of September the Greek General Ulysses defeated, near the pass of Thermopylæ, a large Turkish army which

had advanced from Macedonia; but, on the other hand, the peninsula of Cassandra was taken by the Turks, when 3000 Greeks were put to the sword; women and children were carried into slavery, and the flourishing peninsula converted into a desert waste. The Athenian Acropolis was garrisoned by the Turks, and the inhabitants of Athens fled to Salamis for safety; but in general, throughout all southern Greece, the Turks were driven from the country districts and compelled to shut themselves up in the cities.

THE GREEK CONSTITUTION

The year 1822 opened with the assembling of the first Greek Congress at Epidaurus, and the proclaiming of a provisional constitution on the 13th of January. On the 27th of January, 1822, the independence of the country was proclaimed, and its code published amid the joyful acclamations of the deputies, the army and the people. The government was for the present styled "provincial," while the promulgation of the constitution was accompanied with an address, exhibiting the reasons for shaking off the Turkish yoke. Five members of the Congress were nominated as an executive, and Prince Mavrocordato was appointed President. Ministers were appointed for the different departments of war, finance, public instruction, the interior, and police; and a commission named of three individuals to superintend the naval affairs.

The new Government signalized their liberty by a decree for the abolition of slavery, as well as the sale of any Turkish prisoners who might fall into their hands, prohibiting it under the severest penalties; they also passed another edict for a compensation for military services, and a provision for the widows and orphans of those who should fall in battle; and a third, regulating the internal administration of the provinces. The organization of the army was also commenced; a corps, called the first regiment of the line, was formed and officered from the volunteers of the different nations, and as there were more of them than were requisite for this service, a second was formed of the remainder, which took the name of Philhellenes. Patras was blockaded again by 3000 men, and a smaller body under the French colonel, Voutier, was sent to Athens, to reduce the Acropolis; the forces before Napoli were augmented, and Modon and Coron closely invested by the armed peasantry around. An event, the most terrific and atrocious that history has

ever recorded, marked the commencement of the second campaign: the destruction of Scio and its miserable inhabitants. The Sciots had taken no part in the movement of 1821. In the beginning of May, in that year, a small squadron of Ipsariots appearing off the coast, furnished the aga with a pretext for his oppressions, and he began by seizing forty of the elders and bishops, who were immured as hostages for the good conduct of the people.

THE DESTRUCTION OF SCIO.

"On the 23d of April," says Mr. Blaquiere, "a fleet of fifty sail, including five of the line, anchored in the bay, and immediately began to bombard the town, while several thousand troops were landed under the guns of the citadel, which also opened a heavy fire on the Greeks. It was in vain for the islanders to make any resistance; deserted by the Samians, most of whom embarked and sailed away when the Turkish fleet hove in sight, they were easily overpowered and obliged to fly. From this moment until the last direful act, Scio, lately so great an object of admiration to strangers, presented one continued scene of horror and dismay. Having massacred every soul, whether men, women or children, whom they found in the town, the Turks plundered and then set fire to it, and watched the flames until not a house was left, except those of the foreign consuls. Three days had, however, been suffered to pass before the infidels ventured to penetrate into the interior of the island, and even then their excesses were confined to the low grounds. While some were occupied in plundering the villas of rich merchants, and others setting fire to the villages, the air was rent with the mingled groans of men, women and children, who were falling under the swords and daggers of the infidels. The only exception made during the massacre was in favor of young women and boys, who were preserved to be afterward sold as slaves. Many of the former, whose husbands had been butchered, were running to and fro frantic, with torn garments and dishevelled hair, pressing their trembling infants to their breasts, and seeking death as a relief from the still greater calamities that awaited them. About 40,000 of both sexes had already either fallen victims to the sword, or been selected for sale in the bazaars, when it occurred to the pacha that no time should be lost in persuading those who had fled to the more inaccessible parts of the island, to lay down their arms and sub-

mit. It being impossible to effect this by force, they had recourse to a favorite expedient with Mussulmans—that of proclaiming an amnesty. In order that no doubt should be entertained of their sincerity, the foreign consuls, more particularly those of England, France and Austria, were called upon to guarantee the promises of the Turks ; they accordingly went forth and invited the unfortunate peasantry to give up their arms and return. Notwithstanding their long experience of Turkish perfidy, the solemn pledge given by the consuls at length prevailed, and many thousands who might have successfully resisted until succor had arrived, were sacrificed ; for no sooner did they descend from the heights and give up their arms, than the infidels, totally unmindful of the proffered pardon, put them to death without mercy. The number of persons of every age and sex who became the victims of this perfidious act was estimated at 7000. After having devoted ten days to the work of slaughter, it was natural to suppose that the monsters who directed this frightful tragedy would have been in some degree satiated by the blood of so many innocent victims ; but it was when the excesses had begun to diminish on the part of the soldiery that fresh scenes of horror were exhibited on board the fleet and in the citadel. In addition to the women and children embarked for the purpose of being conveyed to the markets of Constantinople and Smyrna, several hundred of the natives were also seized, and among these, all the gardeners of the island, who were supposed to know where the treasures of their employers had been concealed. There were no less than 500 of the persons thus collected hung on board the different ships. With respect to the number who were either killed or consigned to slavery during the three weeks that followed the arrival of the capitan-pacha, there is no exaggeration in placing the former at 25,000 souls. It has been ascertained that above 30,000 women and children were condemned to slavery, while the fate of those who escaped was scarcely less calamitous.

MARCO BOZZARIS.

Marco Bozzaris, who commanded the Greeks at Grionero, fell on the Turks, and either killed or captured two-thirds of their number. The same brave leader undertook a forced march against Mustapha, who had 14,000 men, while he had only 2000. On assigning each man's part at midnight on the 19th, his last words were : "If you lose sight of

me during the combat, seek me in the pacha's tent." On his arrival at the centre, he sounded his bugle, as agreed upon, and the enemy, panic-struck, fled in all directions. In the midst of the attack, which was now general, he was twice wounded, and at last carried off from the field expiring; the struggle, however, was maintained till daylight, when the Greeks were victorious on all points, and the loss of the enemy was not less than 3000.

BYRON AT MISSOLONGHI.

At the commencement of the year 1824, proclamation was issued by the President and Senate of the United States of the Ionian Islands, declaring their neutrality, and their firm resolution not to take any part in the contest; also prohibiting any foreigner who should do so from residing in the islands. Among the Greeks dissensions still prevailed, every faction following its own plans and seeking to advance its own influence. Mavrocordato, Colocotroni and Ypsilanti headed different factions, among the members of which there was neither unanimity of counsel nor uniformity of action. The Turkish fleet sailed on the 23d of April. The Greek Senate summoned Colocotroni to surrender himself and to deliver up Napoli and Tripolizza, but he refused; the troops that were investing Patras quarrelled about the division of some of their booty, and were withdrawn; in the meantime the Turks sailed from Lepanto with fourteen ships, and blockaded Missolonghi. In order to encourage the Greeks, a loan of about £800,000 was contracted for in London. About this period Ispara was threatened by the Turkish fleet, which was now at Mitylene. The island of Caso was attacked on the 8th of June by an Egyptian squadron, and, after an obstinate resistance, was taken on the 9th. On the 18th of April, this year, Lord Byron died at Missolonghi of an inflammatory fever, after having zealously devoted himself to the cause of the Greeks from the time he first landed, in August, 1823, up to the period of his death.

THE EGYPTIAN FLEET AT NAVARINO.

Taking advantage of an insurrection that broke out on the Morea, at the head of which were Colocotroni and his sons, the troops of Mahomet Ali, pacha of Egypt, were directed to land in great force there, and it now became evident that the neighborhood of Navarino

was destined to be the seat of war. On the 1st of May the Egyptian fleet, from sixty-five to seventy sail, left the port of Suda, where it had been watched by a Greek squadron under Miaoulis, who now sailed to Navarino. On the 8th, Miaoulis' squadron, amounting to twenty-two vessels, was near Zante, the Egyptian fleet, forty-six in number, being off Sphacteria. In about an hour from 2000 to 3000 troops effected a debarkation from the Egyptian fleet on the island. The garrison of Old Navarino capitulated on the 10th, and the garrison of Navarino on the 23d. After the surrender of Sphacteria, a great part of the Egyptian fleet was followed by Miaoulis into the harbor of Modon, and more than half of it destroyed by fire-ships. In the end of May the Turkish admiral left the Dardanelles, and on the 1st of June was encountered by the Hydriote Sakhturi, who, by means of his fire-ships, destroyed three men-of-war and some transports. Soon after the capitan-pacha entered Suda, and destroyed the Egyptian fleet from Navarino. The Greek fleet was dispersed by a tempest, and, having no fire-ships, they retired to Hydra, while the Turkish admiral landed a reinforcement of 5000 men at Navarino, and went to Missolonghi with seven frigates and many smaller vessels. The siege was now vigorously pressed; the lagoon was penetrated on the 21st of July, and Anatolica, an island on the north, surrendered to the Turks. The supply of water was now cut off, batteries had been erected near the main works of the place, the ramparts had been injured and part of the ditches filled up; at length a general attack was ordered on the 1st of August, and the town assailed in four places at once. On the 3d the Greek fleet, consisting of twenty-five brigs, attacked and destroyed two small ships-of-war and all the boats in the lagoon, relieved Missolonghi and obliged the enemy's fleet to retire. On the 10th the Greeks attempted, but without success, to burn the Turkish fleet in the harbor of Alexandria. On the 20th the fleet of the Greeks, about thirty sail, commanded by Miaoulis, engaged the Turks between Zante, Cephalonia and Chiarenza, and an action ensued, which lasted with little intermission for two days and nights, till at length the Greeks were obliged to retire.

Other incidents of the years under consideration were the death of Pope Pius VII and the accession of Pope Leo XII in 1823, the outbreak of the first British war in Burmah in 1824, and the foundation of the British Anti-Slavery Society, by Wilberforce and others, in 1823.

CHAPTER IX.

Great Britain and the Indian Empire—The Mahratta War—Obrenovitch,
Prince of Servia—Revolutions in America—The Triumph of Bolivar—
The Republic of Colombia—Three Republics Organized—Death
of Bolivar—Iturbide in Mexico—Treaty of Cordova—Iturbide
Emperor—Fall of Iturbide—Liberia—"Byron is Dead"—
Literature and Science—Trumbull's Paintings—
Steam Navigation—Death of Decatur.

THE eight years during which James Monroe was President of the United States were years of exceptional interest in the general affairs of the world. In the preceding chapter we have traced the progress of events in the chief States of Europe. It remains to chronicle doings in other parts of the world, and those events in all places which do not properly come under the head of political and military history.

THE MAHRATTA WAR.

Great Britain was at this time engaged in extending the borders of her Indian Empire. The Marquis of Hastings was Governor General, and administered the affairs of the country with aggressive ability. Trouble arose with the Pindarees, a tribe of freebooting horsemen. These were secretly supported and encouraged in their raids by the great Mahratta princes, and their operations kept a large part of India in a state of unrest, amounting almost to civil war. Finally, in 1817, the British Government made a decided movement against them to suppress them. This led to a general war with the Mahratta princes, an episode known in history as the first Mahratta war. It was a severe contest, for the Mahrattas were one of the most warlike of all the nations of Hindostan. The result was victory for the British. A part of the Mahratta territories were retained by the conquerors, and the remainder restored to the native princes. The latter were, however, taken under British protection, and thus practically the whole of Hindostan came directly or indirectly under the sway of the British Crown. Lord Hastings re-

signed his post in 1823, leaving British India in a proud and prosperous condition. His successor, Lord Amherst, soon became involved in a war with Burmah, in 1824. The conflict lasted two years. A British force penetrated almost to Ava, the Burmese capital, and the King was glad to purchase peace by ceding to Great Britain the provinces of Assam, Aracan and Tenasserim.

OBRENOVITCH, PRINCE OF SERVIA.

The affairs of the Turkish Empire in Europe were in a troublous condition. In Serbia the revolution of Kara George was ended in 1813, and an attempt was made to re-establish Turkish rule. A new revolution was, however, promptly organized by Milosh Obrenovitch, a swine-raiser, and in 1817 he was formally elected Hereditary Prince of Serbia. His title was not recognized by Turkey, and years of war followed. In time, however, he forced the Sultan to recognize him a Prince and to grant to Serbia semi-independence. Thus was established the Obrenovitch dynasty, to which the present King of Serbia belongs.

In this same year, 1817, Bolivar established a Supreme Council in Venezuela, and assumed the chief power, practically as Dictator. His operations leading to the independence of Venezuela are more fully detailed elsewhere in this volume.

We may also note in passing the great Wartburg Festival of the German Students' Patriotic Association, and the formation of the United Evangelical Church in Prussia, through a union of the Lutheran and Calvinistic Churches; two incidents of 1817 fraught with much interest in the subsequent development of the German nation.

REVOLUTIONS IN AMERICA.

The revolutions in Central and South America against Spanish rule made steady progress. The year 1818 is reckoned the date of Chilian independence, the important battle of Maypu marking the final triumph of Chilian arms and the practical liberation of the country. The three chief actors in the drama of Chilian liberation were General San Martin, the Dictator Bernard O'Higgins, and Admiral Cochrane, the illustrious British commander.

We have elsewhere related that the royal family of Portugal, in 1806, sought refuge in Brazil. In 1817 a revolution broke out in Pernambuco,

which failed. But the Portuguese King thereupon granted a free constitution and returned to Europe. On October 22, 1822, the Prince-regent, Dom Pedro, was proclaimed constitutional Emperor of Brazil, and the independence of the country was soon recognized by Portugal. The independence of the United Provinces of La Plata was similarly recognized by Portugal in 1821, and thus the Argentine Republic came into existence. The independence of Peru was formally proclaimed in 1821. In 1824 Bolivia was detached from Peru and formed into a separate State.

THE TRIUMPH OF BOLIVAR.

We have hitherto recounted the chief incidents of Bolivar's campaign in Venezuela and Colombia down to the spring of 1817. In 1819 the Congress of Venezuela assembled at Angostura, and Bolivar surrendered into the hands all the powers he had been exercising as Dictator. The Congress, however, required him to resume supreme power and exercise it until the independence of the country should be fully established. He then re-organized his army and set out across the Andes to effect a junction with General Santander, who commanded the revolutionists in New Grenada. In July, 1819, he reached Tunja, where he defeated the Royalist troops and captured the city. On August 7th the Spanish army, under the Viceroy, Samano, advanced to meet him at Boyaca, where a severe battle was fought, which resulted in the complete victory of the revolutionists. The Viceroy fled from the field of battle, and the whole Province of New Grenada was conquered by this victory. Bolivar entered the capital in triumph, and was appointed President and Captain-General of the republic.

Having amply recruited his army he returned to Venezuela, where, on the 17th of December, 1819, a union between the two republics was decreed by the congress through his influence. He then took the field at the head of the strongest army that had yet been collected by the patriots. The Spaniards, after many defeats, agreed to an armistice of six months, in November, 1820. Morillo, their General, returned to Spain, leaving his army under the command of La Torre. At the termination of the armistice the two armies resumed active operations; and, on the 23d of June, was fought the decisive battle of Carobobo; the Spaniards, under La Torre, were entirely defeated, and their broken and scattered forces saved themselves by fleeing to Puerto Cabello. This

victory was the finishing stroke to the war in Venezuela ; by the end of the year the Spaniards were driven from every part of Venezuela and New Grenada, except Puerto Cabello and Quito.

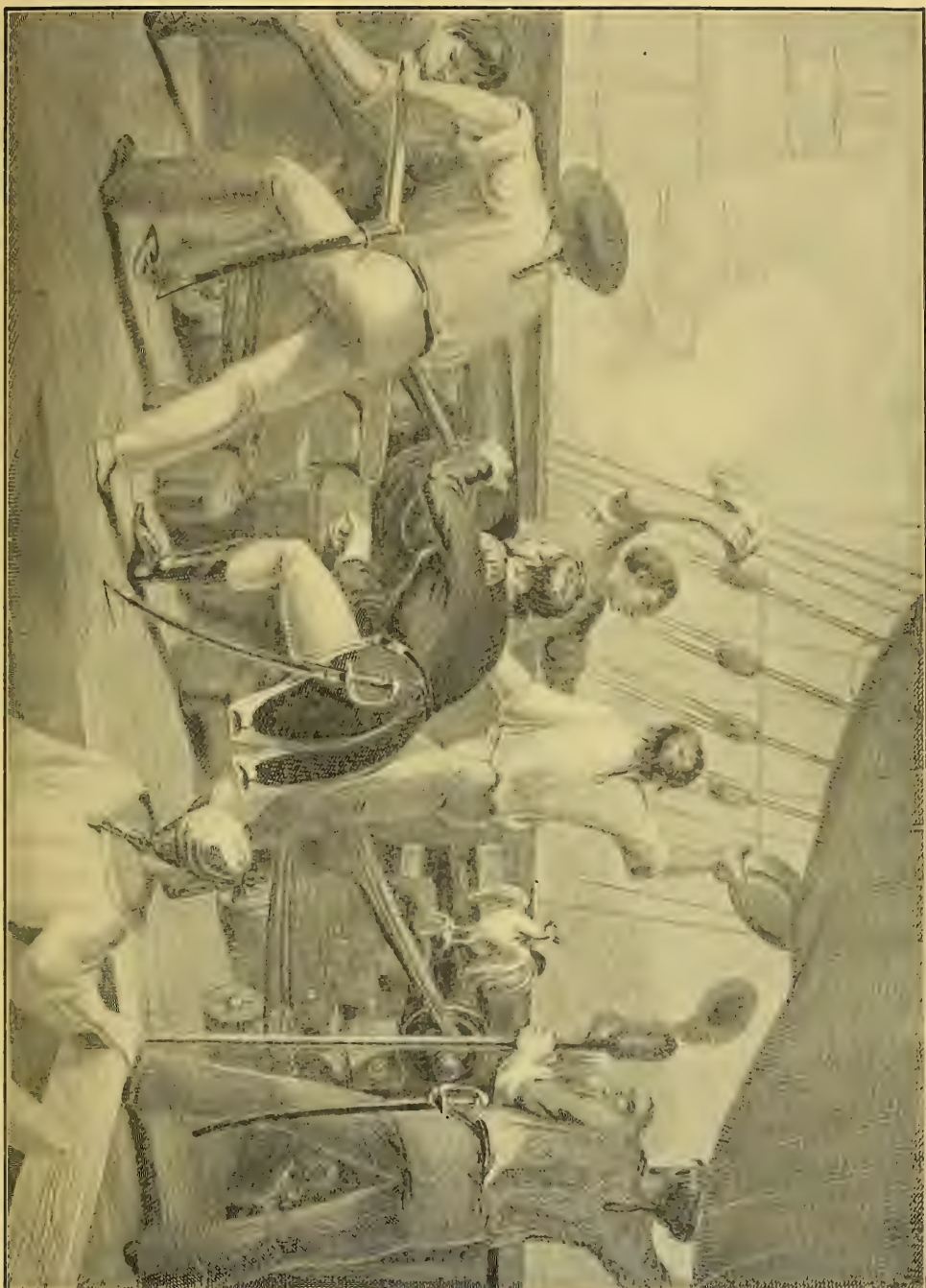
THE REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA.

The two provinces were now united into one State, called the Republic of Colombia. The installation of the first general congress took place on the 6th of May, 1821, at Rosario de Cucuta. A Constitution was adopted on the 30th of August. Bolivar was appointed President, and Santander Vice-President. Puerto Cabello surrendered in December, 1823, and all the Spanish forces had been expelled from the southern part of the republic before this period ; so that, at the beginning of 1824, the Republic of Colombia was totally freed from foreign enemies.

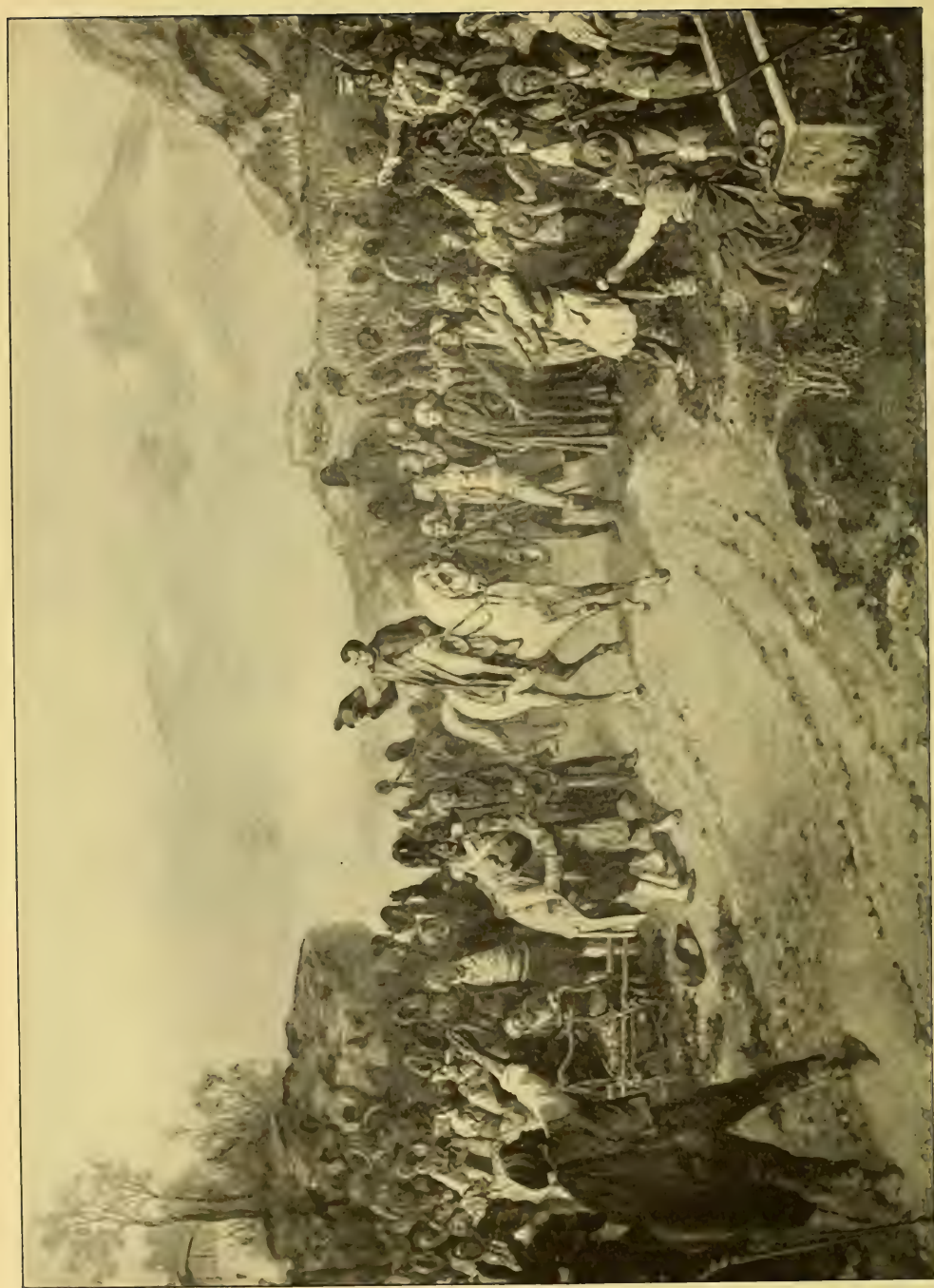
But at the moment when affairs seemed most prosperous, the republic began to be disturbed with civil records. General Paez, a mulatto, and one of the most distinguished officers of the revolution, had received the command of the department of Venezuela. In the execution of a law for enrolling the militia of Caracas, he gave so much offence to the inhabitants by his arbitrary conduct, that they obtained an impeachment against him before the Senate. Being notified of this in April, 1826, and summoned to appear and take his trial, he refused to obey, but placed himself at the head of his troops, and called around him all the disaffected persons in Venezuela, who formed a very strong party. These persons objected to the central government ; some of them wishing for a federal system like that of the United States, and others desiring a total separation from New Grenada. Various disorders broke out in other parts of the republic, and a great portion of the country refused obedience to the Colombian Constitution. An attempt was made to accommodate matters by a convention at Ocana, for amending the constitution, in March, 1828, but the violence of parties and the disturbed state of the country prevented the convention from doing anything, and they soon separated.

THREE REPUBLICS ORGANIZED.

Affairs now came to a crisis ; the country was threatened with anarchy, and Bolivar took a bold and decisive step, by dissolving the Colombian Congress, on the 27th of August, 1828, and assuming abso-



1814—McDONOUGH POINTING THE GUN AT THE BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN



1815—NAPOLEON RETURNING FROM ELBA

lute authority. This act was preceded by addresses from various municipal bodies, calling upon Bolivar to put an end to the public disorders by assuming the supreme command. Whether these addresses were procured by his intrigues, in order to give a plausible color to his usurpation, we have no means of knowing. He organized a new government to suit his own views, and soon began to feel the consequences of the bold step he had taken, in the conspiracies that were plotted against him. On the 15th of September, 1828, an attempt was made to assassinate him. His aid-de-camp was killed, but Bolivar's life was saved by the courage of his officers. Generals Padilla and Santander were charged with this plot, and condemned to death by a special tribunal. Padilla was executed, but the punishment of Santander was commuted for banishment. Various others suffered death. The country was more and more agitated by violent factions; many military leaders aspired to the supreme command, and the efforts of Bolivar to prevent dissension excited insurrections. Bolivar was denounced as a usurper and a tyrant. Venezuela claimed her independence, and Bolivar, finding it impossible to unite the factions and create a spirit of harmony under his rule, resigned all his authority to the congress at Bogota, in 1830. He retired to Carthagena, dispirited and broken down by the calamities of his country. Bolivar's retirement from public life removed every obstacle to the division of the Republic of Colombia. In 1831 it was formed into three independent States—Venezuela, New Grenada and Ecuador—which have continued to the present day.

DEATH OF BOLIVAR.

On the 17th of December, 1831, Bolivar died at San Pedro, near Carthagena, at the age of forty-eight. He was, by far, the most celebrated of all the South American revolutionary leaders; and during many years was considered the "Washington of the South." Yet, notwithstanding his brilliant successes, he outlived both his power and his reputation. At the period of his death he had lost all influence over his countrymen, and he died tainted with the suspicion of having engaged in an intrigue for introducing foreign aid to restore monarchy in Colombia.

ITURBIDE IN MEXICO.

The establishment of a constitution in Spain in 1820 suddenly changed the course of affairs in Mexico. The European Spaniards and

the creoles, who had before made common cause in the royal interest, now divided into two parties, royalists and constitutionalists. The Viceroy, Apodaca, was a royalist, and wished to suppress all attempts to establish a constitution in Mexico. The cause of the insurgents received new strength from the Spanish and Mexican constitutionalists, and the insurrection again looked threatening. Apodaca raised a small army and despatched it to crush the remnant of the insurgent forces. He gave the command to Don Augustin Iturbide, a creole, but a royalist, and an officer who had distinguished himself in the war against the independents. It is supposed that at this moment Iturbide began to entertain those designs of self-aggrandizement which afterwards led him to the throne of Mexico. His very first steps exhibited art and dissimulation. The priests and Europeans furnished him with some money, and on his march he seized on a convoy of specie belonging to the Manila merchants. He formed a junction with Guerrero, one of the patriot chiefs, and had the address to persuade Apodaca that it was only an act of pardon by which the adherents of the revolution would be brought over to the royal cause. Emissaries in the meantime were despatched to every part of the country, and they executed their mission so ably that the inhabitants were everywhere ready to declare in favor of independence.

On the 24th of February, 1821, at the little town of Iguala, on the road from Mexico to Acapulco, Iturbide issued a proclamation, which has since been known by the name of the "Plan of Iguala." Its professed object was to conciliate all parties; to establish the independence of Mexico, and still to preserve its relationship to Spain. To accomplish this, the crown of Mexico was to be offered to the King of Spain; and in case of his refusal, to one of his brothers, on condition of his residing in the country. Though Iturbide had manifestly exceeded the powers which he had received from his superior, yet the Viceroy, thunderstruck at this unexpected event, and seeing that the proposal met the wishes of a great majority of the people, took no decisive steps against him. The royalists, who were numerous in the capital, alarmed at this indecision and delay of Apodaca, instantly deposed him, and placed Don Francisco Novello, an artillery officer, at the head of affairs. But the disorders inseparable from such violent changes gave Iturbide time to augment his forces, strengthen his party, and gain all the northern and western provinces. Before the month of July the whole country acknowledged his

authority with the exception of the capital, in which Novello had shut himself up with all the European troops.

TREATY OF CORDOVA.

In this state of things General O'Donoju arrived at Vera Cruz from Spain, with the office of constitutional Viceroy. Iturbide hastened to the coast, held an interview with the new functionary, and persuaded him to accept the plan of Iguala as an armistice and final settlement, with the proviso that it should be approved by Spain. This agreement was called the Treaty of Cordova, from the town where it was made. It provided that commissioners should be sent to Spain with the offer of the crown, and that in the interim a governing junta and a regency should be appointed; and that a cortes should be immediately convened to form a constitution. The royalists were deeply chagrined at this proceeding, and the garrison at Mexico refused to obey O'Donoju, when he ordered them to evacuate the city. Iturbide obtained possession of Mexico by capitulation, and established a junta and regency, but in such a form that all the power remained in his hands. A cortes was summoned, which met on the 24th of February, 1822, and soon found themselves divided into three parties—the Bourbonists, or friends of the plan of Iguala; the Republicans; and the partisans of Iturbide, who wished to elevate him to the supreme power. Amidst all this dissension Iturbide had little difficulty in playing off one party against another in such a manner that no effectual opposition could be thrown in the way of his ambitious schemes. An accident helped him onward. The royalist garrison of Mexico, which had capitulated and were now encamped at Toluca, entered into a conspiracy to effect a counter-revolution. Iturbide detected the conspiracy and seized this occasion to withdraw from the capital all the troops disaffected to his cause.

ITURBIDE EMPEROR.

Meantime his emissaries were at work intriguing in the army, and on the evening of the 18th of May they assembled the soldiers, harangued them, and distributed money among them. The soldiers marched out of their quarters, drew up in front of Iturbide's house, where they were joined by a mob of the lowest class of people. At 10 o'clock in the evening this multitude began their shouts of "Long

live Iturbide, Augustin the First, Emperor of Mexico!" These cries, with salvos of fire-arms, continued till morning, and the members of the cortes unfriendly to Iturbide's ambitious views were advised, from a pretended regard for their safety, not to attend the meeting that day for fear of the soldiery. Forty members absented themselves in consequence, and the Cortes having assembled, amidst the shouts of the soldiery and the mob, Iturbide was proclaimed Emperor. Most of the provinces submitted to this usurpation without delay or complaint.

Thus, in a short career of little more than two years, an obscure individual was enabled to seat himself on a throne. But his downfall was as rapid as his rise. Dissensions soon broke out between him and the cortes, to which he put an end by dissolving that body on the 30th of October, 1822, precisely as Cromwell dismissed the Long Parliament, and Bonaparte the Chamber of Deputies. Iturbide, however, possessed very little of the genius of these great leaders. He was unable to reconcile the officers of the army, or the men of influence in the country, to these daring measures. He formed a new legislative assembly, composed of persons favorable to his views, but they had not the skill to make his cause popular. Several of the chief officers of the army declared against him, and prepared for resistance. Iturbide began to be terrified at the storm which he saw gathering against him on all sides. General Santa Anna, who had assisted in elevating him to the throne, took up arms against him. Guadalupe Victoria joined his forces to those of Santa Anna. The provinces fell off from the Emperor, and at length Iturbide, utterly despairing of his fortunes, convoked the old cortes on the 8th of March, 1823, and on the 19th of that month abdicated his crown.

FALL OF ITURBIDE.

Thus, after a troubled and disastrous reign of ten months, his Imperial Majesty of Mexico and Anahuac reluctantly threw down his sceptre. He was permitted to leave the country and reside in Italy, with a pension of \$25,000. His exile, however, did not restore tranquillity to the country. The struggles of opposing factions kept everything in confusion, and Iturbide, before the end of a year, miscalculating his influence over his countrymen, had the presumption to imagine that he could re-enact the drama of Napoleon's return from Elba, and regain his throne by merely showing himself in Mexico. Accordingly,

1815—GENERAL WELLINGTON AT THE BATTLE OF BELLE ALLIANCE





1815—GENERAL BLUCHER AT THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

embarking with his family and two or three attendants, he landed in Mexico on the 12th of July, 1824. On attempting to proceed into the interior in disguise, he was discovered and arrested. The Government had previously outlawed him, and he was shot by order of the local authorities at Padilla, in Tamaulipas, on the 19th of July.

In the meantime the neighboring States of Central America followed the example of the rest of Spanish America, and in 1821 declared their independence. Two years later Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica formed themselves into the Federal Republic of Central America. This organization did not last many years, and the five States in time became independent of each other, as at the present time.

LIBERIA.

The year 1822 saw the creation of a new State among the independent nations of the world. This was Liberia, a negro republic, based on the model of the United States. It was organized by the American Colonization Society, a society which sought to solve the slavery question by returning the negroes to Africa. The site of the new State does not seem to have been well chosen, being intensely hot and not salubrious. Nevertheless, a considerable colony was planted there, and a civil government established. In spite of many drawbacks, and the more or less open hostility of some European powers, the little State has maintained its independence to the present time, and has had on the whole a creditable record.

In connection with Africa, we may mention the discovery of Lake Chad, which was effected in 1823 by the British expedition of Denham and Clapperton.

"BYRON IS DEAD."

The death of Lord Byron at Missolonghi has already been mentioned in these pages. It occurred on April 19, 1824. It was an irreparable loss to the world's literature, for in that tragedy perished the greatest poet since Shakespeare. It is related that on hearing the news Alfred Tennyson, already a youth of high promise, went out into the fields and wrote upon a large stone the words "Byron is dead!" and remained for hours musing over the fact in speechless grief.

The progress of literature and science in these times was marked in 1817 by the publication of Cuvier's "Animal Kingdom," a monu-

mental work which practically marked the foundation of the science of comparative anatomy and gave the greatest conceivable impetus to further research and achievement in the domain of natural history.

In the following year, 1818, the great University of Bonn, in Rhenish Prussia, was founded, an institution soon distinguished by the teachings of such scholars as Niebuhr, Schlegel and their compeers, and which now ranks among the foremost universities of the world.

LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

Sir Walter Scott, whose advent in the domain of poetry has already been recorded, published his "Ivanhoe" in 1819, and thus indisputably established his title as the greatest romance writer of the age.

The year 1819 was made memorable in the scientific world by a fundamental discovery in electricity. In that year Oersted, a professor in the University of Copenhagen, after a long and patient series of experiments and investigations, convincingly announced to the world his discovery of the unity between electricity and magnetism.

Between the years 1817 and 1825 the Count de Saint-Simon published the noteworthy series of religious, philosophical and industrial treatises which marked him as the founder of the French school of Socialism.

About this time one of the most extraordinary scientific theories was put forth and obtained for a time a considerable number of enthusiastic believers. This was the theory of Captain Symmes that the earth was hollow and its interior probably inhabited, and that entrance was to be had to the interior through a large aperture at the North Pole. Serious endeavors were actually made to send a scientific expedition to the Arctic regions to ascertain the truth of this theory, but, of course, nothing practical ever came of it.

TRUMBULL'S PAINTINGS.

American progress in the fine arts was splendidly exemplified between 1815 and 1822 by the completion of Trumbull's paintings in the dome of the Capitol at Washington. John T. Trumbull, of Connecticut, was a son of the famous Governor Jonathan Trumbull, of that State. Having assured his rank among the foremost painters of the day, he conceived the splendid project of adorning the dome of the

Capitol with a series of four colossal illustrations of notable scenes in American history. These he completed in a manner that has secured for him lasting fame. The four paintings represent, respectively, "The Signing of the Declaration of Independence," "The Surrender of General Burgoyne," "The Surrender of Lord Cornwallis" and "Washington's Resignation of his Commission at Annapolis."

In these same years the art of lithography, which had been founded by Senefelder in 1796, was first practiced with success in the United States, and made rapid progress.

STEAM NAVIGATION.

We have already spoken of Fulton's invention of the steamboat. In the year 1819 the first steam-propelled vessel crossed the Atlantic Ocean. This was the steamer "Savannah," which made the voyage from Savannah to Liverpool in twenty-two days, and from Liverpool proceeded to Russia. A little later the first steamship line from New York to New Orleans was established, and thereafter steam navigation, both coastwise and trans-oceanic, was rapidly developed.

DEATH OF DECATUR.

A tragic incident of national importance must at this point be noted. We have hitherto spoken of the gallant and renowned exploits of Commodore Stephen Decatur in the war with the Barbary pirates. This distinguished officer, one of the naval heroes of the age, became involved in a dispute with his brother officer, Commodore James Barron, which, according to the barbarous code of ethics prevailing at that time, could be settled only by mortal combat. The two accordingly repaired to the famous, or rather infamous, duelling-ground at Bladensburg, in the outskirts of the city of Washington, and there, on March 22, 1820, fought a duel which resulted in the death of Decatur. This tragedy, more, perhaps, than almost anything else, led to the abolition of the savage practice of duelling in the United States.

The death of Napoleon Bonaparte occurred on the island of St. Helena in 1821. In the following year the world suffered the early death of Shelley, one of the greatest of English lyric poets; of Herschel, one of the foremost astronomers of his time; and of Canova, the great Italian sculptor.

CHAPTER X.

John Quincy Adams becomes President of the United States—Trouble with Creek Indians—The Panama Congress—A Notable Anniversary—Political Movements—Election of General Jackson.

IN 1825, Mr. Monroe was succeeded by John Quincy Adams, who had held the office of Secretary of State during Mr. Monroe's administration. In the Presidential election of 1824 there were four candidates for the Presidency,—John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, and Henry Clay. Of the electoral votes, Jackson received 99, Adams 84, Crawford 41, and Clay 37. There being no choice by the people, the election evolved upon the House of Representatives; and Adams was elected, having received the votes of 13 States, Jackson 7, and Crawford 4.

During Mr. Adams's administration the country was at peace and in a highly prosperous condition; and advantageous treaties of peace and commerce were negotiated with various foreign nations. The policy of Mr. Monroe's administration was continued and greatly extended, in strengthening every arm of the national defence, by erecting light-houses, arsenals, fortifications, etc., by increasing the naval establishment; and especially by improving the inter-communication between the different parts of the country. The famous Bunker Hill monument was also begun. In these internal improvements more was effected by the aid of the government, during Mr. Adams's administration, than during the administrations of all of his predecessors.

TROUBLE WITH CREEK INDIANS.

The national government had agreed to extinguish, for the benefit of Georgia, the Indian title to the lands held by the Cherokees and Creeks in that State. In the last year of Mr. Monroe's administration, the Creeks, in a national council, refused to part with their territory. After the council broke up, however, a few of the chiefs remained, and were induced to make a treaty, ceding the lands to the United States.

This treaty was repudiated by the Creek nation as an act of fraud ; but the Governor of Georgia determined to act upon it as valid.

At this juncture, the Indians appealed for protection to the President of the United States, who interposed to protect them from gross injustice. It was, however, deemed expedient to obtain the lands in question by fair purchase. This was subsequently accomplished ; and, in a few years, the Indians were removed to Territories west of the Mississippi.

In 1828, a new tariff law was enacted, imposing duties on imports, with a view to afford protection to American manufacturers. The principle of a protective tariff has met with a strong opposition, especially in the Southern States ; and it has, ever since the passage of this act of Congress, unhappily, continued to be a subject of contention between opposite political parties.

THE PANAMA CONGRESS.

The President, having been invited to send commissioners to the Congress of Panama, which had for its object the cementing of the friendly relations of all the independent States of America, saw fit to accept the invitation. Having nominated Richard C. Anderson and John Sergeant, as Ministers on the part of the United States, and William B. Rochester, of New York, as Secretary, he presented these names to the Senate for confirmation. This step awakened a spirit of animosity against the President, and a long and angry debate ensued ; but the nominations were eventually confirmed, and the necessary appropriations voted. Measures were soon taken to carry this policy into effect, and directions were sent to Mr. Anderson, who was then in Columbia, to attend the Congress, which was to be convened in the beginning of summer. But he was cut down by a malignant fever before he could reach the place. Mr. Sergeant was prevented from going, on account of the lateness of the period at which his appointment was made.

This failure of representation at the Congress, on the part of the United States, was, by many, deemed auspicious, as the relations and interests of the country might otherwise have been compromised ; but others thought differently, and believed that a conference of the kind might issue in the adoption of a friendly and enlightened policy between the parties.

A NOTABLE ANNIVERSARY.

In this administration occurred the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. This was a day long to be remembered in the annals of the nation. The exultation of feeling throughout the country, that we had reached in safety the fiftieth anniversary of our independence, was great. The day was everywhere celebrated with more than the usual demonstrations of joy. But the most striking feature of the occasion was the simultaneous deaths of two ex-Presidents of the United States, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson. The coincidence in their departure from life was certainly remarkable, more especially as having occurred at that particular juncture. It would seem to have been a providential dispensation, designed to answer some important purpose; perhaps to awaken the great principles of political freedom and equal rights, to the maintenance of which the lives of both were consecrated. They had both—and equally, perhaps—acted a most conspicuous part on the theatre of the world, and especially in the affairs of American independence. “Both had been Presidents, both had lived to great age, both were early patriots, and both were distinguished and ever honored by their immediate agency in the act of independence. It cannot but seem striking and extraordinary, that these two should live to see the fiftieth year from the date of that act; that they should complete that year, and that then, on the day which had fast linked forever their own fame with their country’s glory, the Heavens should open to receive them both at once. As their lives themselves were the gifts of Providence, who is not willing to recognize, in their happy termination, as well as in their long continuance, proofs that our country and its benefactors are objects of His care?”

POLITICAL MOVEMENTS.

The administration of Mr. Adams was marked by the rise or development of several political movements which were destined to have far-reaching effects. One of these was the adoption of the “American System” of a protective tariff, especially championed by Henry Clay, of Kentucky. The name “American System” was given to the policy of protecting, by impost duties, the manufactures of the country against foreign competition. It began to be employed during the administration of Mr. Adams. Additional duties were sought by the

friends of manufactures on woolen goods, and a bill for that purpose passed both houses of Congress in the months of April and May, 1827. The measure, however, seemed not to be satisfactory to the country at large. "The President was in favor of affording protection to domestic manufactures generally, and of woollens particularly, which, at this time, was the leading question in political economy, so far as the Federal government was believed to have authority to interfere. But he was also friendly to extensive enterprises in commerce and navigation, and expressed no opinion in support of the ultra doctrines of the manufacturers."

The rise of the Anti-Masonic party, of which more will be heard in a later chapter, is also to be attributed to this era. The tariff controversy gave rise to the famous "Nullification" movement, and the dispute with Great Britain over the ownership of Oregon waxed apace. A new treaty was concluded with Great Britain, and a material revision of the pension system, to Revolutionary soldiers and veterans of the War of 1812, took place.

ELECTION OF GENERAL JACKSON.

The administration of Mr. Adams encountered strong and determined opposition. The circumstance of his rival, General Jackson, having had a larger popular vote than himself, and having in Congress only a small majority when elected to office, seemed, in the view of the Democratic party, quite sufficient to justify a more than usual distrust of his administration from its beginning. Mr. Adams was watched with singular vigilance, and every advantage taken to render his acts unpopular. It was early charged against him that a corrupt bargain had been made with Mr. Clay, his Secretary of State. The Panama mission was represented as a measure weak and injudicious. And, moreover, it was charged that his administration was wasteful and extravagant.

During Monroe's administration, and, indeed, in the early part of John Quincy Adams's, party lines were practically abolished in American politics. But in the latter part of Mr. Adams's term they began to be drawn again pretty strictly. The friends of Mr. Adams called themselves National Republicans, or Whigs. The friends and political followers of General Jackson, on the other hand, took the name of Democrats. Mr. Jackson was put forward as a candidate for the presidency, and, after a heated and bitter campaign, was elected, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, being chosen at the same time as Vice-President.

CHAPTER XI.

**Fall of Louis XVIII.—The War in Greece—Accession of Czar Nicholas I.—
Change of Russian Policy—Destruction of the Janissaries—Declaring for Greek Independence—Battle of Navarino—Russia
Makes War on Turkey—Doings in Various Lands.**

UPON the fall of Louis XVIII, of France, his brother, the Count of Artois, became King, as Charles X. He was imbued with all the prejudices and prepossessions of the old regime, and he had none of his brother's power of seeing when it was necessary to yield. He contrasts with Louis XVIII as James II did with Charles II. But his first measures were popular. He expressed his determination to uphold the Charter; he removed the censorship of the press; and he restored to Louis Philippe, the son of Philippe Egalite, the great possessions of the house of Orleans and the title of Royal Highness. But before long he showed his real intentions. The Ministry of Villele was retained, and more than 150 officers of the Empire were dismissed from the army, and the Jesuits, though still proscribed by law, were allowed to return to France and to resume their control of education. The enormous sum of 100,000,000 francs was raised to compensate the losses of the emigrants who had fled during the revolution, and in spite of vigorous opposition the scheme was adopted by the submissive chambers. But it was the King's devotion to the church that raised the bitterest discontent. The open patronage of the Jesuits, the gorgeous processions through the streets, in which the King himself took part, and a law which proposed to punish sacrilege with death, aroused uncompromising hostility in a city where the teaching of Voltaire still prevailed. In 1825 the funeral of General Foy, the most eloquent leader of the opposition, gave an opportunity for a grand Liberal demonstration. To silence criticism the Government brought in a new law to shackle the press, but it was received with such disfavor in both chambers that it had to be withdrawn. In 1827, while the King was reviewing the National Guard, a cry was raised of "Down with the Jesuits!" and the force was



1815—NAPOLEON



1815—NAPOLEON'S CAVALRY CHARGE AT WATERLOO

broken up. Villele now determined on a last effort to maintain his power. The Chamber of Deputies was dissolved, and seventy-six new peers were created. But the new elections went completely against the Government, and the Liberals secured a majority of 428 to 125. The King was compelled to give way, and Villele was dismissed (January 3, 1828).

A moderate Ministry now came into office under the Presidency of M. de Martignac. A law was introduced which imposed only slight restrictions upon the press, and a number of ordinances were issued against the Jesuits. But Martignac found that he had a very difficult position to occupy. Charles X regarded the Ministers as forced upon him, and refused to give them confidence.

THE WAR IN GREECE.

The campaign of 1825, in Greece, was opened by the landing, in the Morea, of an Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pacha, son of the Viceroy of Egypt, whom the Sultan had induced to engage in the war. Navarino soon fell into his power; nor was his course arrested till he had carried desolation as far as Argos. In the meantime Missolonghi was closely besieged by a combined land and naval Turkish force, which, on the 2d of August, after a contest of several days, suffered a disastrous defeat, with the loss of 9000 men. But Missolonghi was again besieged for the fourth time, the siege being conducted by Ibrahim Pacha alone, who had an army of 25,000 men, trained mostly by French officers. After repelling numerous assaults and enduring the extremities of famine, Missolonghi at length fell, on the 22d of April, 1826, when 1800 of the garrison cut their way through the enemy and reached Salonica and Athens in safety. Many of the inhabitants escaped to the mountains; large numbers were captured in their flight; and those who remained in the city, about one thousand in number, mostly old men, women and children, blew themselves up in the mines that had been prepared for the purpose. Five thousand women and children were made slaves, and more than three thousand ears were sent as a precious trophy to Constantinople.

The fall of Missolonghi was followed by the siege of Athens. Another obstinate defence was made, but in spite of the assistance rendered by Colonel Fabvier, Lord Cochrane and General Church, Athens had to surrender (2d of June, 1827). The Greek cause was hopeless

unless the European powers would interfere, and the old dissensions broke out again. Fortunately for the Greeks events had occurred which altered the relations of the European States, and frustrated Metternich's determination to uphold the Porte as the champion of legitimate authority against revolution.

ACCESSION OF CZAR NICHOLAS I.

On the 1st of December, 1825, Alexander I, of Russia, died suddenly on a journey to the Crimea. As he left no children, his natural successor was his brother, Constantine, who resided in Warsaw, as Governor of Poland. But Constantine, who had contracted a morganatic marriage with a Polish Princess, and who was devoid of ambition, had, in 1822, formally renounced all claims in favor of his younger brother, Nicholas. This renunciation had never been made public, and Nicholas, unwilling to act upon it until it had been confirmed, caused the troops to swear fealty to Constantine as Alexander's successor. But the elder brother positively refused to ascend the throne, and Nicholas was compelled to assume the authority that now devolved upon him. But unexpected difficulties confronted him. Alexander's desertion of Liberal principles in his later years had alienated the affection of his subjects, and a secret association had been formed, under Prince Troubetskoi, with the object of forming Russia into a federal republic. The uncertainty about the succession and the consequent interregnum gave the conspirators an unexpected opportunity. They persuaded the soldiers that Constantine's pretended renunciation was a fraud, and that Nicholas was trying to usurp his brother's throne. The result was that, when the troops were called upon to take a new oath of fealty, a cry was raised for Constantine, and the tumult went so far that artillery had to be employed, and the disloyal regiments were almost destroyed before they would yield. The conspiracy was now discovered and its leaders punished.

CHANGE OF RUSSIAN POLICY.

The accession of Nicholas brought with it a complete change in both the internal and foreign politics of Russia. From the first moment he abandoned the system pursued by his predecessors from Peter the Great downwards. Instead of attempting to civilize Russia by introducing the customs and laws of western Europe, he showed himself an ardent par-

tisan of all the old national institutions, and especially the Greek Church. The Russian language was ordered to be taught in the German and Polish provinces, and a knowledge of it was essential for a place in the public service. If a foreigner married a Russian their children must be educated in the faith of the latter. The zeal for proselytism only just stopped short of actual persecution. At the same time Nicholas claimed to be the head and protector for all members of the Greek Church outside of his own dominions. It was evident that his attitude in the eastern question would be very different from that of Alexander, and that it would be determined by the interests of Russia rather than by the principles of legitimacy. The Holy Alliance had been shaken by the conduct of Canning; it was shattered by the accession of Nicholas. Metternich lost the control of European diplomacy which he had contrived to hold for the last ten years.

Canning lost no time in sending Wellington to St. Petersburg to discuss the question of Greece with the Czar. At first Nicholas haughtily declared that his relations with the Porte concerned no other power, but he soon saw the advantage of making England his accomplice in a partition of Turkey. In April, 1826, a secret convention was signed, which arranged that Greece should be formed into a regular State, but should pay tribute to the Sultan. In case of refusal the two powers were to compel the Porte to accept these terms. The other powers were to be invited to join the alliance.

DESTRUCTION OF THE JANISSARIES.

At the same time Nicholas had other matters to settle with the Sultan, and Mahmoud II played into his hands by choosing this very moment for the reforms which he had been meditating ever since his accession. He issued an ordinance altering the constitution of the Janissaries, the famous Turkish troops composed of children of Christians taken captive, though it left the existing members of corps in enjoyment of their privileges. The result was a general mutiny on the 14th of June. But the Sultan was prepared for extreme measures. He produced the sacred standard of the prophet and called upon all true believers to support him. A wholesale massacre of the Janissaries followed, and the name was banished forever. Mahmoud now set to work to raise a new army, which was to consist of 250,000 men, armed and trained like

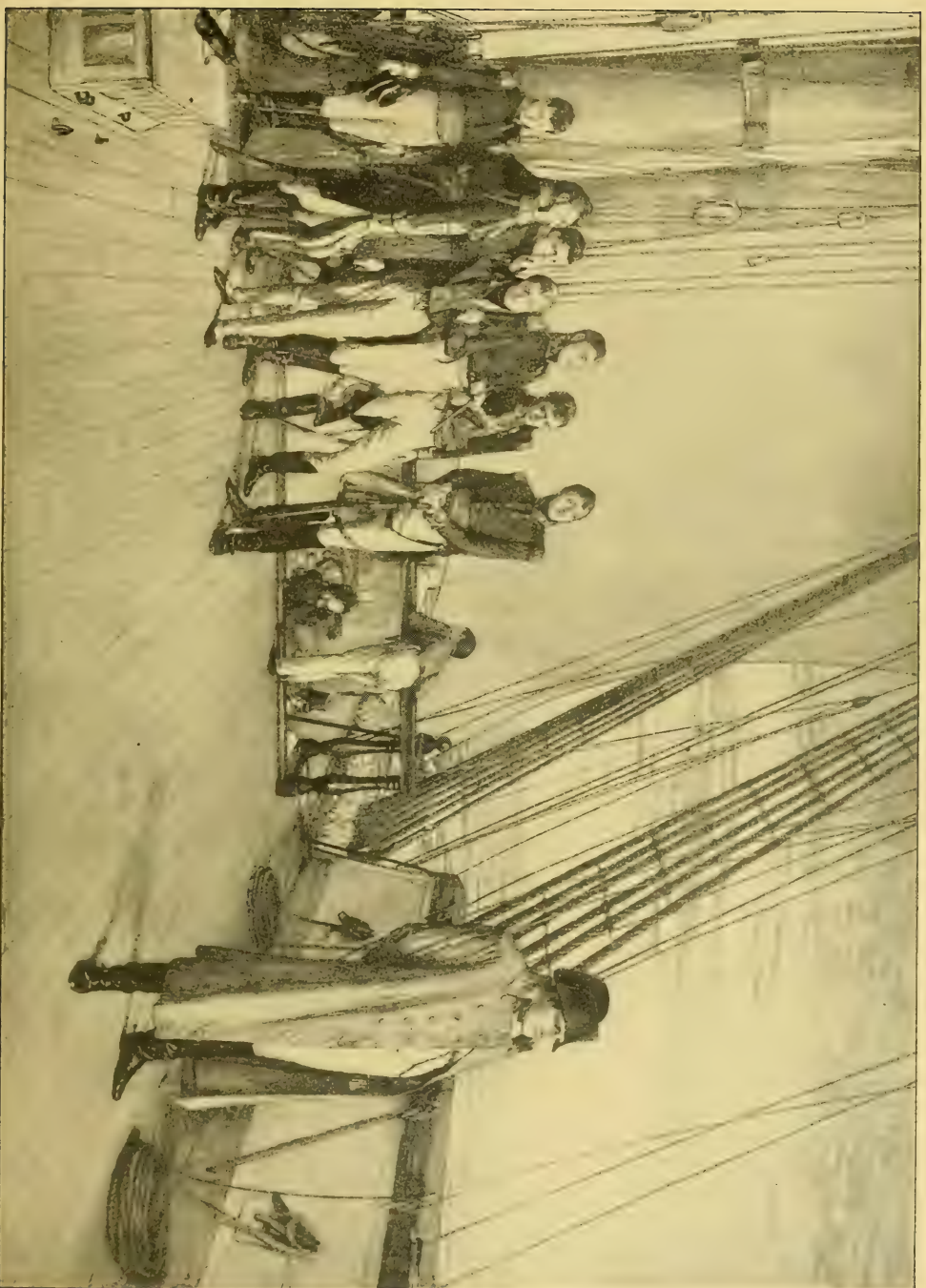
European troops. But a long time must elapse before such an elaborate scheme could be carried out, and meanwhile Turkey was defenceless. This compelled the Sultan to accept all the demands of Nicholas in the convention of Ackermann (October, 1826). The treaty of Bucharest was confirmed, and it was agreed that the Hospodars of Moldavia and Wallachia should be chosen for seven years, that they should rule with a council of Boyars in complete independence of the Porte, and that they could not be deposed without the consent of Russia. Servia was to elect its own Prince, and the Sultan was not to interfere in its internal affairs. Russia was to occupy the fortresses on the east coast of the Black Sea, and Russian ships had the right of entering all Turkish waters.

DECLARING FOR GREEK INDEPENDENCE.

One of the Sultan's motives for such abject compliance was a desire to separate Russia from England on the Greek question. But Nicholas was the last man to be turned from his course by an exhibition of weakness, and the negotiations were actively prosecuted at a conference in London. Metternich resolutely refused to countenance rebellion in any form, and induced Frederick William of Prussia to adhere to the programme of the Holy Alliance. In France the moderate Louis XVIII had been succeeded by the reactionary Charles X, but the strong French sympathy with the Greeks induced the Government to disregard the danger of revolution and to join Russia and England. On the 6th of July, 1827, the three powers concluded the treaty of London, which was based on the previous convention of April, 1826. Greece was to be tributary, but otherwise independent; hostilities were to cease immediately; and if the Sultan failed to accept the mediation of the powers within a month, the latter would recognize the entire independence of Greece. This treaty, which was forced upon Canning by the fear of allowing Russia to interfere single-handed, was his last conspicuous act. He died on the 8th of August, and the Tories gradually regained the upper hand in the Ministry.

BATTLE OF NAVARINO.

The Sultan, whose hopes of success had been raised by the capture of Missolonghi and Athens, haughtily refused to admit the right of any power to interfere between himself and his rebellious subjects. Ibrahim



1815—NAPOLEON ON BOARD THE "BELLEROPHON"



1815—DECATUR'S STRUGGLE WITH THE ALGERIANS

at this time received large reinforcements, which were brought to Navarino by an Egyptian fleet from Alexandria. He received orders to wage a war of extermination in the Morea, and he acted up to the letter of his instructions. Meanwhile the allied fleets of England, France and Russia had appeared on the scene to enforce the treaty of London. The admirals called upon Ibrahim to cease hostilities, and entered the harbor of Navarino to compel his submission. In these circumstances a battle was inevitable, and in four hours the whole Egyptian fleet was utterly destroyed (20th October, 1827). Mehemet Ali was compelled to recall his son. Such active mediation had not been anticipated in England, where the Ministers alluded to the battle as "an untoward event." But the Greeks, whose cause seemed on the very verge of collapse, received the news with frantic enthusiasm. Mahmoud II complained bitterly of the outrage, and expressed his determination not to yield. In December the Ambassadors of the allied powers had to leave Constantinople.

RUSSIA MAKES WAR ON TURKEY.

That the battle of Navarino really proved an "untoward event" to English interests was due mainly to the conduct of the Ministers, who abandoned the policy of Canning and allowed Russia to attack Turkey single-handed, the very thing which he had striven to avoid. No opposition was made to the election of the Russian nominee, Capo d'Istria, as President by the Greek National Assembly. Nicholas was eager to seize the advantages offered to him by the vacillation of England and the destruction of the Janissaries. Time was required to collect the resources of so vast a country as Russia, but in April, 1828, war was declared, and in May 150,000 Russian troops, under Wittgenstein, crossed the Pruth. To the astonishment of Europe the campaign was a complete failure. The Turks wisely restricted their efforts to the defence of fortresses, in which they have always excelled. The Russians spent so much time in the siege of Schumla, Varna and Silistria, that winter compelled them to retreat before they had achieved anything beyond the reduction of Varna. The simultaneous campaign in Asia was more fortunate, and Paskiewitsch, who had already made a great name in the wars with Persia, captured the strong fortresses of Kars and Achalzik, which the Turks regarded as impregnable. At the same time the withdrawal of Ibrahim and his Egyptian troops enabled the Greeks once

more to hold their own in the peninsula. Still, on the whole, the Russians had failed, and Metternich endeavored to take advantage of this to arrange a peace which should save Turkey from humiliation. But France and Prussia declined to support him, and even Wellington, who was now at the head of the English Ministry, would not take any active steps to check the advance of Russia.

In the month of January, 1829, the Sultan received a protocol from the three allied powers, declaring that they took the Morea and Cyclades under their protection, and that the entry of any military force into Greece would be regarded as an attack upon themselves.

DOINGS IN VARIOUS LANDS.

The year 1825 saw changes on other thrones than that of Russia. In it Maximilian I, of Bavaria, was succeeded by his son, Louis I; and Ferdinand I, of Naples, was succeeded by his son, Francis I. These changes were, however, of no special significance to the general course of events on the Continent.

Of the first Burmese war and its results to the British Empire we have already spoken. It came to an end in 1826. In the same year the Spaniards evacuated Callao, their last holding in Peru.

The illustrious Canning succeeded Lord Liverpool as Prime Minister of England in April, 1827, and died at the post of duty in August of the same year. In that year Frederick Augustus, King of Saxony, was succeeded by his brother Anthony. In 1828 the Duke of Wellington, the conqueror of Napoleon Bonaparte, became Prime Minister of England, and the Test Act, of which we have elsewhere spoken, was repealed.

The war between Persia and Russia came to an end in February, 1828, with the cession of Persian Armenia to Russia. In that year Uruguay was recognized as an independent republic.

CHAPTER XII.

Opening of the Erie Canal—Gas Lighting—Railroads—Arctic Exploration—Early Strikes—Miscellaneous Events.

THE year 1825 was marked in the United States with an event of inestimable industrial and commercial importance. This was the opening of the Erie Canal, directly connecting the Great Lakes with the Atlantic Ocean by way of the Hudson River. Seldom has a work of great public utility been so stubbornly resisted and so bitterly ridiculed and savagely denounced. Its author and promoter, DeWitt Clinton, was alternately derided as a lunatic and denounced as a knave. But his perseverance was crowned with success, and thus New York City was made the greatest commercial port of the Western Hemisphere.

The project of connecting the lakes with the ocean by way of the Mohawk and Hudson valleys was considered as far back as the early part of the Revolutionary War, when no less a man than General Washington found time amid his urgent military duties to look over a part of the route, and to express his opinion of the practicability of the scheme. The Western Inland Navigation Company was formed in 1792, and five years later it completed some six miles of shallow canal around rapids of the Mohawk, thus opening a waterway for small boats from above Little Falls to Lake Ontario. These works were afterwards purchased by the State of New York.

The next step was taken in 1808, when Simeon De Witt, the Surveyor-General of the State of New York, was directed to inspect and lay out a canal route from the Hudson River to Lake Erie. He appointed James Geddes to do the work, and the latter, in January, 1809, reported on various routes by way of Oneida Lake and Oswego. The next year the New York Legislature appointed a committee on the project. The chairman of this committee was Gouverneur Morris, who as early as 1803 had declared himself in favor of a canal from Albany to Buffalo. This committee made several reports, but nothing practical

was done until De Witt Clinton took up the matter and urged it to completion.

On April 7th, 1816, Clinton secured the passage of an act authorizing the construction of the canal. Ground for the great work was broken at Rome, N. Y., on July 4th, 1817. In the face of obstacles, the work was earnestly prosecuted, and Clinton had the supreme felicity of seeing it successfully completed and opened on November 4th, 1825, from Buffalo to Albany, a distance of 352 miles. It was forty feet wide and four feet deep, and was navigable by boats of 76 tons burden. It has since, of course, been much enlarged.

The Lake Champlain Canal was authorized at the same time as the Erie. The State of Pennsylvania in 1826 began the construction of an elaborate series of canals from Pittsburg to Philadelphia and to Lake Erie, comprising more than 600 miles. The canal along the Delaware River from Bordentown to Easton was begun in 1827. The Georgetown and Cumberland Canal, to connect the Potomac with the Ohio River, was begun on July 4th, 1828, President Adams himself turning the first spadeful of earth. The Louisville and Portland Canal, in Kentucky, was begun in 1825. In 1824-29 the Chesapeake and Delaware bays were connected by a canal across the State of Delaware. The Delaware and Raritan Canal, across New Jersey, was planned at the same time, and was constructed a few years later.

GAS LIGHTING.

We have hitherto recorded the use of gas for illuminating purposes in London. The first attempt to manufacture gas in the United States was made at Baltimore in the second decade of the century, but was not successful until 1821. Gas lighting was introduced into the city of Boston on a small scale in 1822. The next year the New York Gas Light Company was organized in New York City, but for some time did nothing practical. At last, however, in 1827, it set to work and illuminating gas came into general use in the city.

RAILROADS.

The first real railroad in the world was that between Stockton and Darlington, in England, for the carrying of coal. It was opened in 1825, the cars being drawn by horses. But Stephenson soon equipped it

with steam locomotives. In 1828 the Liverpool and Manchester railroad was opened, also for horse-power. Stephenson urged the use of steam-power, and the directors offered a reward for a locomotive that should be able to draw three times its own weight on a level track, at the rate of ten miles an hour. In October, 1829, the "Rocket," an engine built by Stephenson's nephew, more than answered the required test. It weighed only $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons, and it drew 44 tons at the rate of 14 miles an hour.

The United States did not lag behind in railroad building. A five-mile horse road was built at Quincy, Mass., in 1826-27, to convey granite from the quarries to tidewater. It was built to supply stone for the Bunker Hill Monument. Another was begun in 1827 and completed in the same year, to carry coal from the mines to the river, at Mauch Chunk, Pa., a distance of nine miles. The cars, loaded, were to be run down by gravity, and pulled up again by mule-power. A similar road was built in 1828 by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, at Honesdale, Pa.

In January, 1828, Horatio Allen, of the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, went to England to order iron rails for the last-named road, and to examine the newly-invented steam locomotives; and, if he thought well of them, to purchase three. He did, in fact, order one locomotive at the works of Foster, Rastrick & Co., of Stourbridge, and two more at the works of R. Stephenson & Co., at Newcastle. These engines were received at New York in the winter of 1828-9, and the following spring were put upon the rails. The Stourbridge engine was run with anthracite coal as fuel, by Mr. Allen himself, making six miles at its first trip, and was the first steam locomotive to be run on the American continent. The next year locomotive building was successfully begun in the United States at West Point.

ARCTIC EXPLORATION.

The first important voyage to the Arctic seas in the nineteenth century was that of Captain Scoresby. This was simply a whaling voyage, but the high latitude of 81 deg. 30 min. was reached, in 1806. Twelve years later Commander John Ross made an unsatisfactory voyage into Baffin Bay and Lancaster Sound. In the same year, 1818, Captain Buchan reached the northern part of Spitzbergen.

The first voyage of Lieutenant Parry was made in 1819-20. He was in quest of the north-west passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and he went through Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, Lancaster Sound and Barrow Strait, to Melville Island. Captain (afterward Sir) John Franklin made a journey in the Hudson Bay and Great Slave Lake region, to the Arctic Ocean in 1819-22. At about the same time a Russian expedition explored Nova Zembla. Parry's second voyage was made in 1821-3. Again he sought the northwest passage, and he went through Hudson Strait and Fox Channel to Fury and Hecla Strait. Captain Scoresby explored and mapped the eastern coast of Greenland to a high latitude in 1822. In that and the following year Captain Sabine went to Spitzbergen and the eastern coast of Greenland.

Parry's third voyage for the northwest passage, in 1824-25, ended in a shipwreck. In 1825-7 Franklin made his second expedition to the Arctic regions by way of the Mackenzie River. Captain Beechey went through Behring Sea and along the Arctic coast as far as Point Barrow in 1826. Parry made his fourth voyage in 1827. On this occasion he forsook the northwest passage and steered for the North Pole. He went by ship to Spitzbergen and thence by boats as far north as 82 degrees 45 minutes, the highest latitude that had thus far been reached, and the highest that was reached for many years thereafter.

EARLY STRIKES.

The earliest strike of which there is any satisfactory record in this country was that of the boot and shoe makers of Philadelphia in 1796. These men "turned out," as the saying then was, for an increase of wages. They won, and again struck in 1798 and 1799, carrying their point each time.

The first strike in New York of which record has been found is that of the sailors in 1803 for an increase of wages from \$10 to \$14 a month. The jack tars paraded around the water front and compelled seamen from every ship in port that they could reach to join with them in their agitation. They became riotous, and the town guard turned out and repressed their disorder. The leader of this strike was convicted and sent to jail, and the strike was a signal failure. On November 1, 1805, the journeymen bootmakers of Philadelphia again struck, this time for an increase in their pay of from 25 to 75 cents on each pair of boots.

The successful precedents set by their fellows some years before did not avail them, however; the strike was an egregious failure. Its organizers were found guilty of "conspiracy to raise wages," and were fined \$8 and costs each. When the New York shoemakers turned out in 1809, 200 strong, they won their contention, but when the shoemakers in Pittsburg in 1815 followed their example they failed, and were convicted and fined.

As long ago as 1821 the printers struck in Albany against non-union workmen, but there are no data at hand now indicating the exact result of their protest. Next in chronological order came the strike of the spinning girls in the Cocheco Mills in Dover, N. H., in 1827. The carpenters and masons of Boston struck in 1830 for a ten-hour day and failed. So the protest against non-union workingmen dates at least from 1821, and that for a ten-hour day at least from 1830.

MISCELLANEOUS EVENTS.

The University of London, England, was founded in 1826, to become University College when the new University of London was incorporated in 1836.

In 1825 occurred the death of Saint-Simon, the founder of French Socialism, and of Jean Paul Richter, the incomparable German essayist, humorist and philosopher. One of the most impressive incidents of the age was the death of Thomas Jefferson and John Adams on July 4, 1826, already mentioned elsewhere in these pages. Both were conspicuous framers and signers of the Declaration of Independence, both had been President of the United States, and both died on the same day, the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration.

Laplace, the great French astronomer, died in 1827, and the same year saw the death of Beethoven, the greatest musical composer the world has ever known.

The years of which we are now speaking were marked with a strange mixture of fashions and customs in dress and otherwise. In the reactionary countries of Europe the tendency was toward a restoration of manners that had prevailed before the revolutionary era, while in England and the United States the tendency was in the opposite direction. The latter tendency was the more rational, and finally prevailed.

CHAPTER XIII.

Andrew Jackson becomes President of the United States—Changes in Office—Nullification—South Carolina Yields—Georgia and the Cherokees—National Bank—Removal of the Deposits—Black Hawk War—Seminole War—Jackson Re-elected—Foreign Affairs.

IN 1829 Mr. Adams was succeeded as President of the United States by Andrew Jackson, who had been principally known for his military achievements, and who, in the battle of New Orleans, and in conducting a war with the Seminole and Creek Indians, had acquired a high reputation as a military commander.

General Jackson's administration was signalized by a more extensive removal of office-holders than had been practiced by any of his predecessors; by a persevering hostility to the United States Bank, which terminated in the overthrow of that institution; and by opposition to the policy of making appropriations for internal improvements. Several bills making such appropriations, and also a bill for the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, which passed both Houses of Congress, he returned with his veto.

CHANGES IN OFFICE.

President Jackson not only introduced into American politics the Democratic party under its present name, but he also established the principle of "rotation in office," or, as it has in later years been known, "the spoils system." He believed that it was best for the country to have frequent changes in office, and that such changes should be made by the simple process of turning off all the old office-holders and filling their places with the friends and followers of the new administration. So well did he put this principle into practice that in two years he made more changes in office than all his predecessors had made in forty years. His doctrine of rotation in office was in after years tersely expressed by his friend and follower, William L. Marcy, in the historic phrase, "to the victors belong the spoils."

NULLIFICATION.

One of the most sensational events of Jackson's administration was the rise of "nullification," of which, indeed, the first intimations had been perceived in the preceding administration. This was otherwise known as the doctrine of States Rights or States Sovereignty. It was put forward by the Vice-President, John C. Calhoun, and by Senator Robert Y. Hayne, both of South Carolina. They insisted that the United States was not a Union, but a mere Confederacy or Alliance of independent States, and that any State was at liberty to withdraw from it at any time, or to refuse to obey any law of the general government. This was, of course, the origin of the theory which in 1860 and 1861 reached its culmination in open secession. Upon this subject was held the most famous debate ever known in the United States Senate, between Mr. Hayne on one side, and Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, on the other. The great reputation won by Mr. Webster in this debate gained for him the popular title of the Expounder of the Constitution, and his words, "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable," became the often quoted watchword of those who were opposed to nullification and secession. Soon after this debate Mr. Hayne resigned his place in the Senate and became Governor of South Carolina, and Mr. Calhoun resigned the Vice-Presidency to take the place thus left vacant in the Senate. Then a popular convention in South Carolina declared the national tariff law which Congress had enacted to be null and void, and added that if any attempt was made by the Federal government to enforce it in South Carolina that State would secede from the Union. President Jackson acted in this emergency with great promptness and resolution. He declared that nullification was treason, and that the Union must be and should be preserved. In this year, 1832, he issued a proclamation plainly and forcibly stating the nature of the American government, and the supremacy of the federal authorities in all matters intrusted to their care. At the same time, in this document, he exhorted the citizens of South Carolina not to persist in a course which must bring upon their State the force of the confederacy, and expose the Union to the hazard of a dissolution.

SOUTH CAROLINA YIELDS.

The proclamation of General Jackson was a noble production. It was hailed with delight throughout the country as well by his political

opponents as by his friends. "Perhaps no document has emanated from the executive department of the government which has been more generally approved, both in regard to the style in which it was written, and the doctrines asserted and maintained, since the farewell address of the first President. It contains no speculative opinions, no new theories; it speaks the facts of history, in the language of the Constitution, and in the spirit which we, of a later generation, may suppose animated its framers."

The Governor of South Carolina issued a counter proclamation, calling on the people to resist any attempt to enforce the tariff laws. The President then addressed a message to Congress, recommending such measures as would enable the executive to suppress the spirit of insubordination, and sustain the laws of the United States. The President, on this momentous occasion, was nobly supported by the leaders of the opposition party in Congress, with Mr. Webster at their head. The force of public opinion was irresistible—South Carolina was compelled to shrink before it. No resistance was actually made to the enforcement of the laws they had nullified, and, consequently, no coercive measures were necessary on the part of the general government to maintain its authority. The objectionable laws were somewhat modified in the session of 1833, by what was termed "the compromise act," proposed by Mr. Clay; and South Carolina, though she was not convinced of her error, made no further attempt, until many years later, to put her theories into practice.

GEORGIA AND THE CHEROKEES.

The President, in his message on the 8th of December, 1829, presented at considerable length, his views in regard to the disposal of the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States. He recommended their removal beyond the boundary of the different States, but without compulsion, to such territory west of the Mississippi as Congress might set apart for their use. In this he wished to avoid the difficulties arising from the treaties between the United States and these Indians, and the opposing claims of the States within whose limits the Indians resided. This was one of the most embarrassing subjects which demanded the attention of the new administration. It was especially applicable to the relation which the Cherokees, a powerful tribe within the limits of Georgia, sustained to the general government.

Treaties had been made with this tribe, from time to time, ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution. In these treaties the protection of the United States was promised them, and the territory they inhabited was acknowledged to be theirs. But the government had also acknowledged the limits of Georgia, and had agreed to extinguish the Indian title whenever it could be peaceably effected.

Georgia, in her anxiety to secure the Indian territory, had passed laws, from time to time, with reference to that object, claiming exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction over the Indians. In this state of things the new administration came in, and the views of the President coinciding with those of the State of Georgia, a change was made in her mode of procedure. She was allowed, with the approbation of the general government, to extend her laws over the Cherokees, and to consider the treaties of the United States with them, guaranteeing their territory, as unconstitutional and void.

Notwithstanding all the stringent measures of Georgia the Cherokees were determined to remain in the land of their fathers. But at length, in 1835, a few of their chiefs were induced to sign a treaty for the sale of their lands and a removal west of the Mississippi. Although this treaty was opposed by a majority of the Cherokees, and the terms afterwards decided upon at Washington rejected, yet, as the State of Georgia was determined in its hostility, and they could expect no protection, according to the new doctrine, from the general government, they finally decided upon a removal; but it was not until the close of the year 1838 that the task of emigration was completed.

NATIONAL BANK.

In anticipation of a request for the renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, the President, in his message to Congress, had expressed opinions adverse to that measure. But the standing committees of the Senate and House, to which that portion of his message referred, made reports in opposition to the President's views. The friends of the administration formed a majority in both committees, and it was readily perceived how little harmony of action there was likely to be, on that subject, between the President and the party which had brought him into power.

About four years anterior to the expiration of the existing charter, that is, in December, 1832, a memorial was presented to Congress from

the President and Directors of the United States Bank, for a renewal of its charter. This memorial was referred to a select committee, which, on the 13th of March following, reported in its favor, recommending only some limitations to the power of issuing notes and holding real property, also the payment of a bonus of \$1,500,000. After long debates and various amendments a bill for this purpose was carried in the Senate by a vote of twenty-eight to twenty, and in the House by a vote of one hundred and seven to eighty-five; but, being on the 4th of July sent to the President, it was returned to the Senate on the 10th of July with an absolute veto, which, not being opposed by two-thirds, decided the fate of the bank.

REMOVAL OF THE DEPOSITS.

The law of 1816, which created the United States Bank, required that the public moneys should be deposited in that bank, subject to be removed only by the Secretary of the Treasury, and requiring him, in that case, to present his reasons for removing them to Congress. Congress had already refused to authorize the removal of the deposits, and the President was now resolved to effect it on his own responsibility. The new Secretary of the Treasury, William J. Duane (for there had been some recent changes in the Cabinet), refusing to act in this matter and resigning his office, the Attorney-General, Roger B. Taney, was appointed in his place. Mr. Taney immediately issued the necessary orders for the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank—a measure which resulted from the President's determination to break off all connection between the government and the bank.

At the coming session of Congress, 2d of December, 1833, one of the first acts of the Senate was the adoption of a resolution, by a vote of twenty-six to twenty, declaring "that the President, in his late executive proceedings in relation to the public revenue had assumed upon himself authority and power not conferred by the Constitution and laws, but in derogation of both." This resolution remained on the journal until January 15, 1837, when it was formally expunged by order of the Senate.

The act of the President, and the measures taken by the United States Bank, occasioned much embarrassment throughout the mercantile community during the years 1834 and 1835. Committees, appointed by the merchants, mechanics and tradesmen of the principal commercial

cities, solicited the President to replace the government deposits in the United States Bank. But he resisted every solicitation. Many petitions were sent to Congress on the same subject. The Senate favorably received them, but the House saw fit to sustain the President in this measure.

BLACK HAWK WAR.

The year 1832 was signalized by the Black Hawk War, so named for the famous chief of the Sac and Fox Indian tribes, who was the leader in it. These tribes had joined the British in the War of 1812, and inflicted much injury on the Americans. Encouraged by the friendship of the British, as well as incited by their own warlike propensities, the Sacs and Foxes claimed the right of occupying a part of the country upon Rock River, even after it had been sold to the citizens of the United States and the latter had made settlements upon it. In attempting to assert this right, frequent collisions ensued; and, as no persuasions on the part of the agents of the government could induce them to be quiet and confine themselves to their own country on the west of the Mississippi, measures were taken to compel them to desist from their aggressions. As early as 1831, a considerable detachment of the army, and also of the militia of Illinois, was called into the field; upon which the Indians agreed to confine themselves within their own proper limits.

In a short time, however, this arrangement was violated by a party of these Indians in an outrage committed upon a band of friendly Menomonies in the very vicinity of Fort Crawford. Twenty-five persons were wantonly killed and many wounded while encamped in the village of Prairie du Chien under the protection of our flag. It was felt by the government that this aggression could not be passed over without the infliction of a due chastisement, as all was at stake in regard to the friendly Indians and the frontier settlements in that quarter. Accordingly, the department ordered General Atkinson, on the 7th of March, 1832, to ascend the Mississippi with the disposable regular troops at Jefferson Barracks, and to strengthen the frontiers; orders were also given for the re-occupation of Chicago.

In the prosecution of his instructions, General Atkinson proceeded to the Indian country, where, after various skirmishes and several more serious engagements, the Sacs and Foxes, under the direction of Black Hawk, fled beyond the Mississippi. On the 28th and 29th of July,

General Atkinson crossed with his army to the north side of the Wisconsin, at Helena, in pursuit of the enemy. After a most difficult and forced march over steep mountains and through deep ravines, on the 5th day of March the enemy was announced by one of the scouts. A suitable disposition was made of the American forces, with a view to prevent the escape of any of the foe, and the firing commenced as the different portions of the army came in contact with him. The battle lasted upwards of three hours. About fifty of his women and children were taken prisoners, and many were killed in the battle. When the Indians were driven to the bank of the Mississippi, some hundreds of the men, women and children plunged into the river, and hoped, by diving, to escape the bullets. Very few, however, escaped—the American sharpshooter is nearly infallible in his aim.

Black Hawk, in the midst of the battle, escaped, and went up the river. The savages, after this defeat, became convinced of the impossibility of contending with success against the American arms. No further serious resistance was offered on their part, and the war soon closed by the capture of Black Hawk, who was delivered up to the American commander by two Winnebagoes on the 27th of August. He was well treated and much noticed in the United States.

SEMINOLE WAR.

The Seminole Indians of Florida, near the close of the year 1835, commenced hostilities against the settlements of the whites in their neighborhood. To this they were incited by the attempt of the government to remove the Indians to lands west of the Mississippi, in accordance with the treaty of Payne's Landing, executed in 1832. That treaty, however, the Indians denied to be justly binding upon them, and they naturally felt a strong reluctance to quit their homes forever. Micanopy, the king of the Seminoles, was opposed to the removal; and Osceola, their most noted warrior, said he "wished to rest in the land of his fathers, and his children to rest by his side."

Osceola was cruelly put in irons by General Thompson, the government agent, who was displeased by the pretensions of the chieftain and his remonstrances against the governmental proceedings. He, however, obtained his liberty at length by dissembling his displeasure, and gave his confirmation to the treaty of removal. The whites were thus lulled

into security, and, while they were expecting the delivery of the cattle and horses of the Indians according to the treaty, the latter were already commencing the work of devastation and death.

At this time Major Dade was dispatched from Fort Brooke, at the head of Tampa Bay, with upwards of one hundred men, to the assistance of General Clinch, stationed at Fort Drane, in the interior of Florida. The latter was supposed to be in imminent danger. Dade had proceeded only about half the distance when he was suddenly attacked by the enemy, and he and all except four of his men were killed, and these four, terribly mangled, afterwards died of their wounds.

At the time of this massacre, Osceola, with a small band of warriors, was lurking in the vicinity of Fort King, about sixty-five miles south-west from St. Augustine. Here General Thompson and a few friends were dining at a store near the fort when Osceola and his band surprised them by a sudden discharge of musketry, and five out of nine were killed. The general was one of the slain. The war came to an end in 1836, the Indians being subdued and removed to the Indian Territory, west of the Mississippi River.

JACKSON RE-ELECTED.

Mr. Clay's compromise tariff of 1832 averted civil war, but did not prove permanently satisfactory. In the fall of 1832 a new presidential election was held, and, for the first time in the history of the country, the candidates were nominated at national conventions of the respective parties. Before that time they had been nominated by congressional caucuses, by the States' Legislatures or by local conventions. Three nominations were made in 1832. The Democrats renominated Jackson; the National Republicans or Whigs, nominated Henry Clay; the third party, which nominated William Wirt, was known as the Anti-Masonic party. It had its origin in 1826. In that year one William Morgan, living in the western part of New York State, published a little book purporting to reveal some of the secrets of Freemasonry. Shortly afterward he mysteriously disappeared, and was never again heard of. His friends immediately raised the cry that he had been kidnapped and murdered by the Freemasons, and, in consequence, a political party was formed designed to exclude all Freemasons from office, if not from citizenship. The dead body of a man was afterward found in a river where he had been drowned, and, though quite unrecognizable, was declared

by the Anti-Masons to be that of Morgan. Among themselves they admitted that it might not be, and, indeed, probably was not, Morgan's body, but they said in a phrase which has become historic, "It is a good-enough Morgan until after election."

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

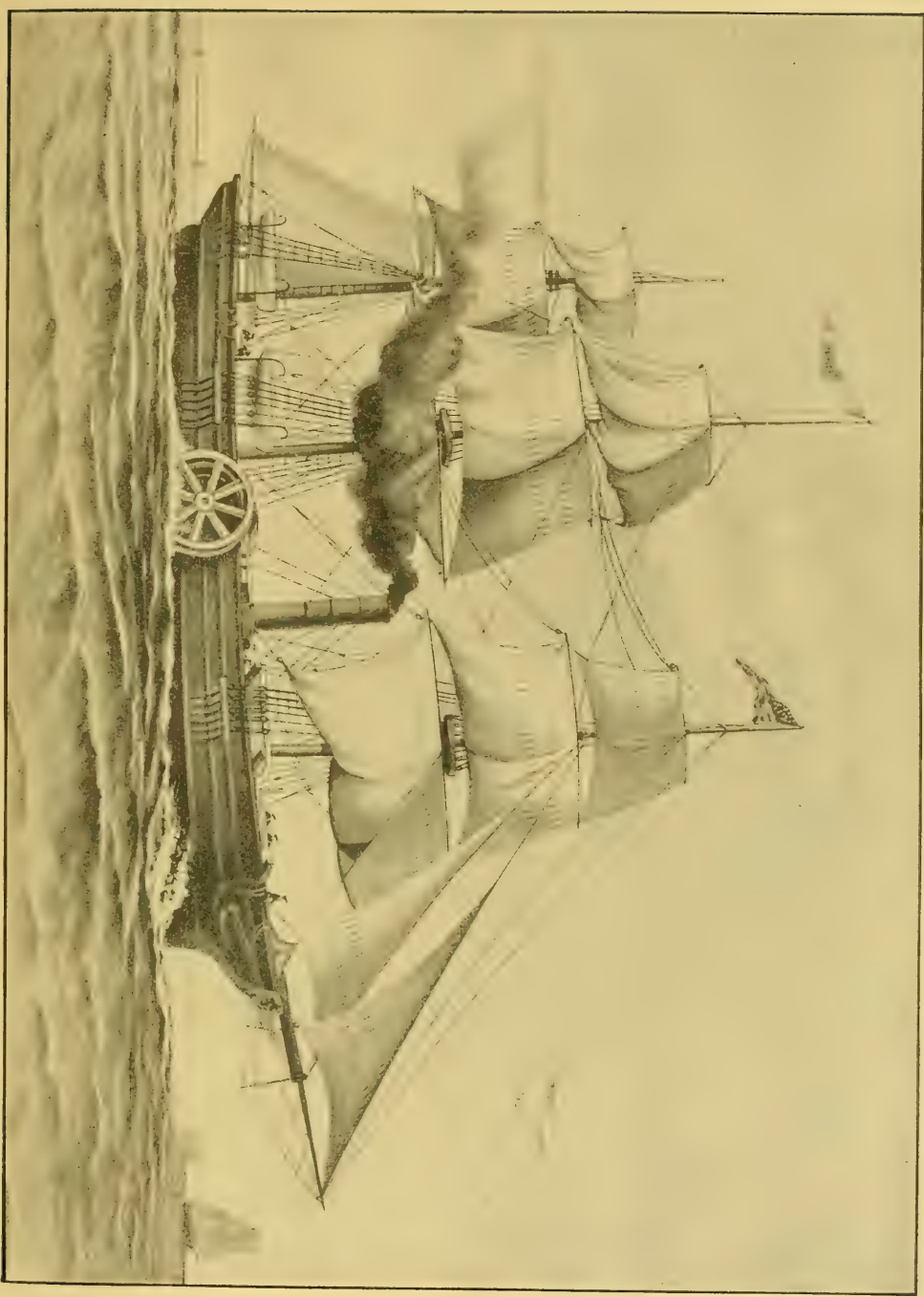
In 1834 the country was disturbed by an apprehension of a hostile collision with France. The French government, by a treaty negotiated in 1831, had agreed to make indemnity for spoliation made on American commerce during the reign of Napoleon, but it had failed to fulfill its engagements. The President recommended (1834) reprisals upon French commerce. The measure, however, was not adopted by Congress, and the danger of open hostility was happily removed by the action of the French government in making, in the following year, provision to fulfill its stipulations.

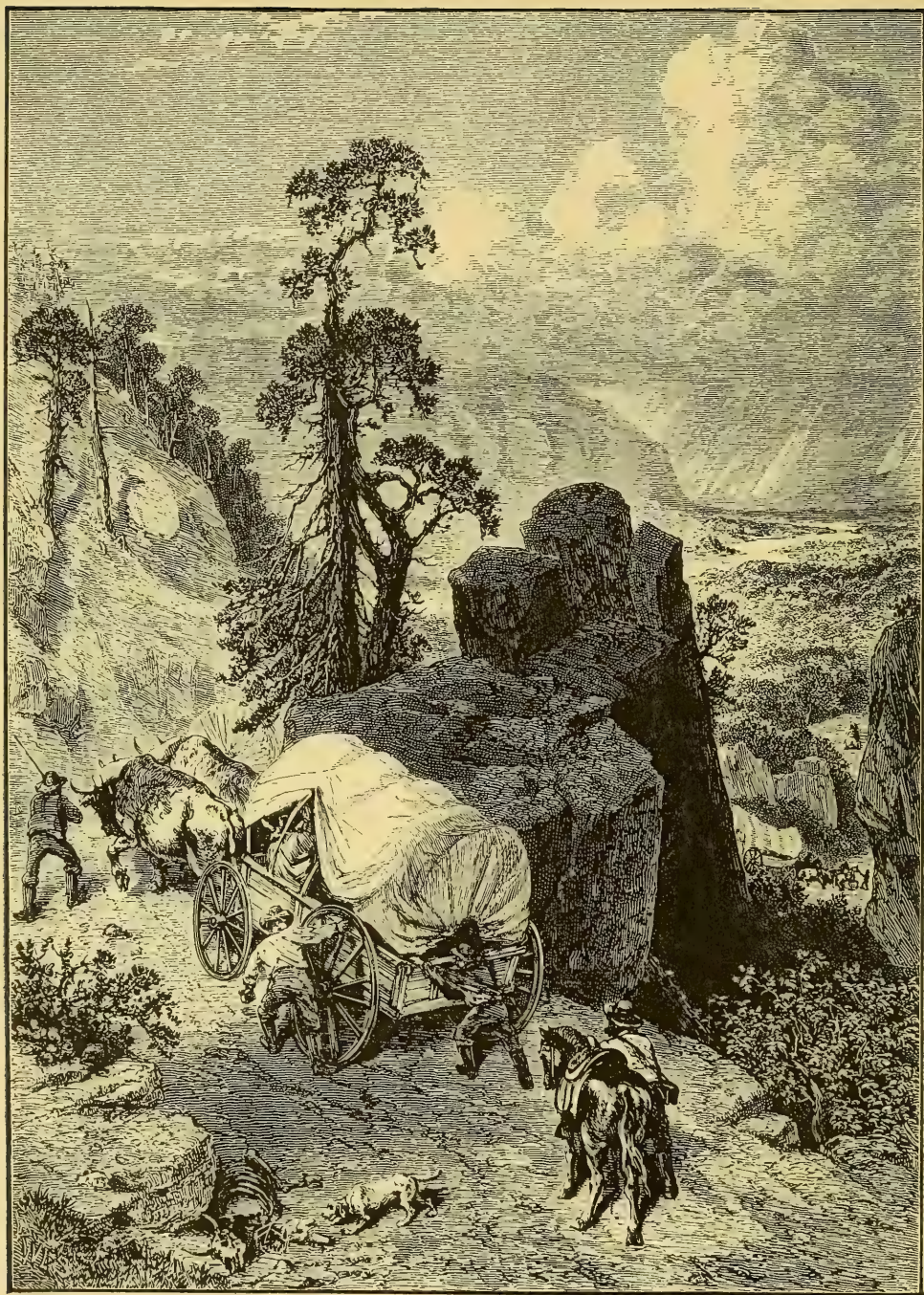
The public debt of the United States in 1816, after the close of the war with Great Britain, amounted to upwards of \$127,000,000. After the return of peace the debt was rapidly reduced, and in 1836, it having been all paid off, it was computed that on the 1st of January, 1837, there would remain in the treasury a surplus revenue of \$27,000,000. An act was passed by Congress (1836) for distributing this surplus (reserving \$5,000,000), to be paid, in four instalments, to the several States, in proportion to their representation in the Senate and House of Representatives.

The admission of Arkansas into the Union as a State, the beginning of Garrison's anti-slavery agitation, and the conception of the Anti-Slavery Society, date from the closing years of Jackson's administration, though more is to be heard of the last two at a later date.

At the close of his second term President Jackson acquiesced in the established custom, and signified his intention of retiring to private life. At the election in the fall of 1836, Martin Van Buren, of New York, was chosen to succeed him, with R. M. Johnson, of Kentucky, as Vice-President.

1819—"SAVANNAH"—FIRST STEAMSHIP CROSSING THE ATLANTIC OCEAN





1821—PIONEERS CROSSING THE SIERRA NEVADA MOUNTAINS

CHAPTER XIV.

Catholic Emancipation in England—Wellington Prime Minister—Catholic Emancipation Effected—End of the Greek Revolution—Russo-Turkish War—Troubles in France—Conquest of Algeria—Reaction in France—The Revolution Begins—Flight of the King—Belgian Revolution—Unrest in Poland—Outbreak at Warsaw—Russians Routed—The Fall of Poland—Reform Law in England—Triumph of Reform—Doings in Various Lands—The Carlist War.

FOREMOST among the political questions in England in the third decade of the century was that of Catholic emancipation, so-called. It really involved the granting of political rights to Roman Catholics and to Protestants who dissented from the Established Church of England. In the year 1824 an Irishman, Daniel O'Connell, a barrister of great eloquence, organized the "Catholic Association," and collected a "rent" from the Irish people. In 1825 a relief bill, brought in by Sir Francis Burdett, passed the Commons, but was lost in the Lords, where the Duke of York uttered a solemn oath that, if he came to the throne, he would never consent to the repeal of the Catholic disabilities. The Duke, however, died on the 5th of January, 1827, and in February the long administration of Lord Liverpool was ended by his seizure with paralysis. The King, who disliked Canning for his former advocacy of the Catholic claims, felt nevertheless obliged to receive him as a Premier (April 1, 1827). But Canning had already contracted a mortal disease at the funeral of the Duke of York. He was regarded by the aristocracy as an upstart. He was deserted by the Duke of Wellington, Mr. Peel, Lord Eldon, and the old Tory party. He was harassed by his false position between the opposition, who called on him to redeem his professions in favor of the Catholics, and the King, who declared that he should break his coronation oath if he consented to emancipation. In four short months Canning died (Aug. 8, 1827).

He was buried privately in Westminster Abbey, and his widow was made a viscountess. The title descended to his son, who raised it to an earldom by his signal services in India, and died, like his father, a martyr to the public service (June, 1862).

WELLINGTON, PRIME MINISTER.

The short administration of Viscount Goderich (Aug., 1827—Jan., 1828) was again succeeded by that of the Duke of Wellington, with Mr. Peel as Home Secretary. The friends of Mr. Canning—namely, Mr. Huskisson, Mr. Lamb, Mr. Grant and Lord Palmerston—afterward left the ministry. It was under this Tory Government that the disabilities, both of the Protestant Dissenters and of the Roman Catholics, were removed. Lord John Russell (b. Aug. 18, 1792), the younger son of the Duke of Bedford, and the faithful inheritor of the principles for which Lord William Russell suffered under Charles II, moved the repeal of the Test and Corporation acts passed under that King. Mr. Peel was left in a minority, and withdrew his opposition. In the Lords the measure was supported by Lord Holland, the nephew of Charles James Fox, and the Duke of Sussex, the sixth son of George III., to whom his consistent support of civil and religious liberty had been most distasteful, as it now was to George IV. The passing of this act gave a new stimulus to the agitation for Catholic relief. The crisis was brought on by the election of O'Connell for the county of Clare. The Duke of Wellington was convinced that his choice lay between concession and a civil war, the horrors of which he deprecated with deep feeling; and his ministry announced a measure for the relief of the Catholics in the King's speech (1829). Mr. Peel, who had always opposed the Catholic claims, was rejected by his constituents of the University of Oxford in favor of Sir Robert Harry Inglis, a kind-hearted, simple-minded Tory, who always held that "wherever the King carried his flag, there he should carry his church." Peel came back to the House as member for Westbury, and introduced the bill, which passed the Lords on April 10, after earnest opposition. Lord Eldon was moved to tears, and Lord Winchelsea came forward as the champion of religion in a duel with the Duke of Wellington. The act opened Parliament and offices of State to the Catholics on their taking a new oath in place of the oath of supremacy; but they were excluded from the offices of Regent, Viceroy of Ireland,

and Lord Chancellor both in England and Ireland. The exclusion from the crown, and its forfeiture by marriage with a Catholic, remained in force. The words of the new oath, "on the true faith of a Christian," had the effect of excluding the Jews from Parliament until 1858, when they were admitted.

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION EFFECTED.

The King gave his assent to the bill, but showed a resentment against the ministry, which was shared by the Tory party. Their violent opposition, in concert with the Radicals, was only neutralized by the support of the Whigs, which enabled Peel to carry some valuable measures, among which was the formation of the new police (1830). He had previously mitigated the criminal law ; and Mr. Brougham had moved (Feb., 1828), in a speech of surpassing eloquence, for a commission on the state of the law, which led to most important reforms. But the rejection of Lord John Russell's motion to give members to the great manufacturing towns of Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds, left the question of parliamentary reform to be settled in the next reign. Meanwhile the King was living in peevish seclusion at Windsor, where he died on the 26th of June, 1830, in the 68th year of his age and the 11th of his reign, and was succeeded by his next surviving brother, William Henry Duke of Clarence.

END OF THE GREEK REVOLUTION.

The battle of Navarino and accompanying events, recorded in a former chapter, practically ended the Greek revolution and gave that country independence. The provisional government of Greece, which had been organized during the revolution, was agitated by discontents and jealousies. For some time the country remained in an unsettled condition, and the President, Count Capo d'Istria, was assassinated in October, 1831. The allied powers having previously determined to erect Greece into a monarchy, first offered the crown to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg (since King of Belgium), who declined it on account of the unwillingness of the Greeks to receive him, and their dissatisfaction with the boundaries prescribed by the allied powers. Finally the crown was conferred on Otho, a Bavarian Prince, who arrived at Nauplia in 1833.

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR.

Russia continued her aggressions upon Turkey. In 1829 the command of the Russian army in European Turkey was given to Diebitsch, a native of Silesia. He left behind him, under guard, the Turkish fortresses which his predecessor had vainly tried to reduce, and pressed on to and across the Balkans. His was the first Russian army that ever crossed the Balkans and approached Constantinople. On reaching Adrianople, however, his army was found to be so weakened by fatigue and disease that it mustered only 13,000 men. A vigorous attack by the Turks would have ensured his annihilation. Fortunately for him, however, the Turks entered into negotiations for peace, and a treaty was concluded. Russia resigned all conquests except some islands at the mouth of the Danube and a small strip of territory in Asia, acquisitions, however, of much strategic importance. The Hospodars of Moldavia and Wallachia were to be appointed for life, and were to be practically independent of Turkey. No Turk was to reside in those provinces, which were made a protectorate of Russia. Thus was laid the foundation of the present great kingdom of Roumania. The navigation of the Danube was to be free, and the Dardanelles were to be open to the ships of neutral powers.

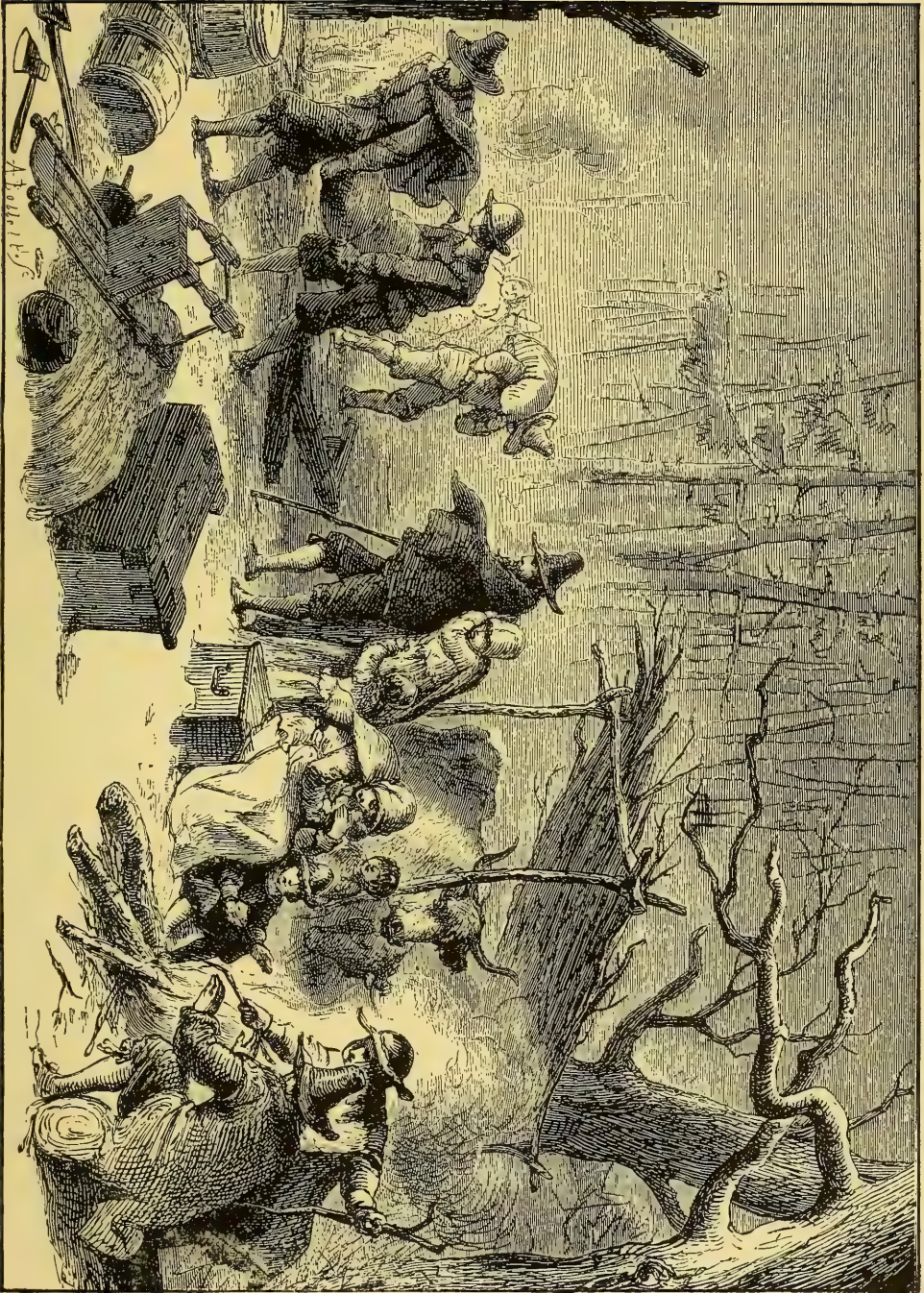
In 1829, through the close intercourse of the Western powers with Turkey, the dreadful scourge of Asiatic cholera was first introduced into Europe, where it made hideous ravages, and whence it was later transferred to the United States.

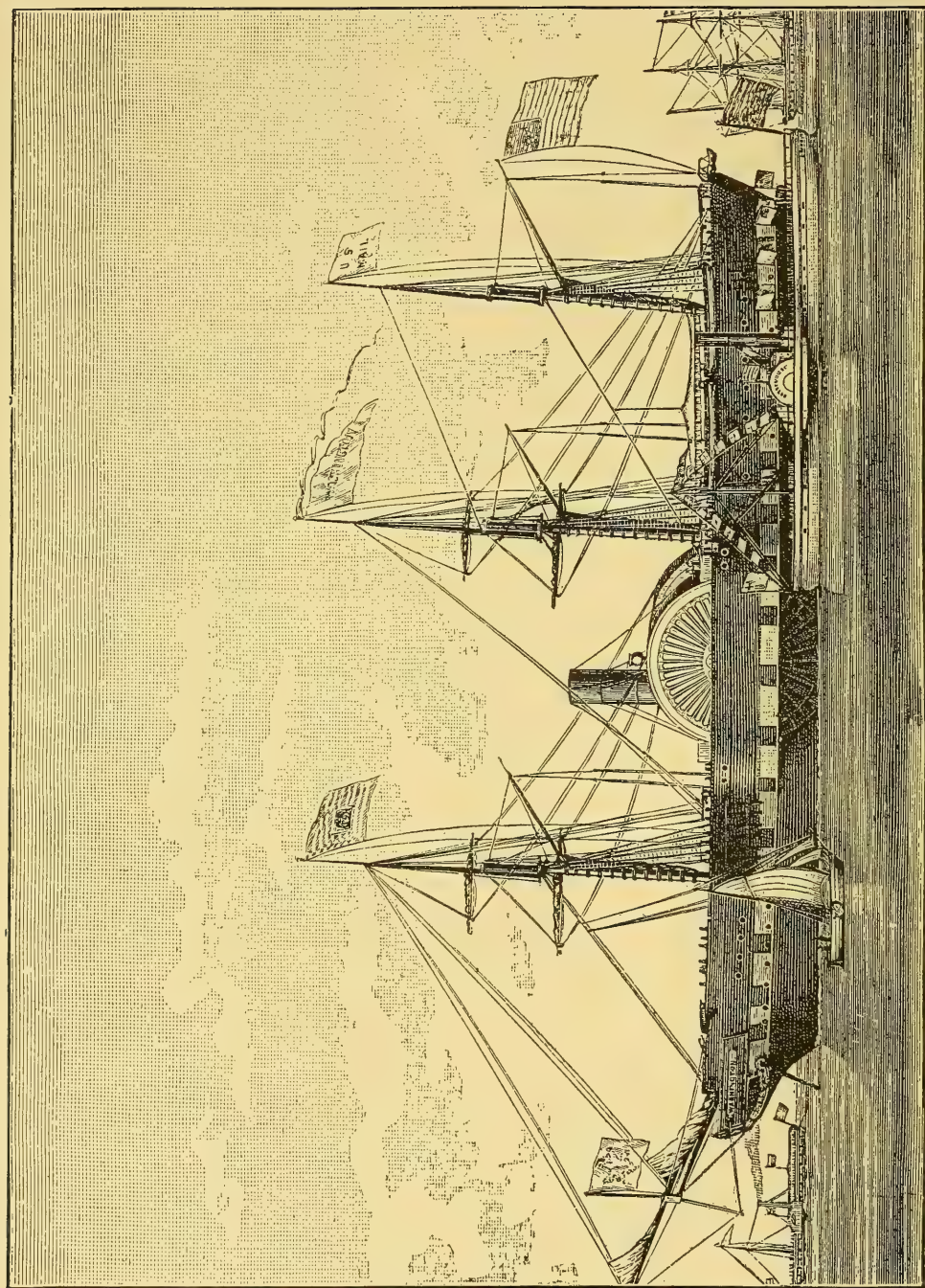
TROUBLES IN FRANCE.

Meantime, Charles X of France was hastening to his fall. The liberal ministry, which the popular party had forced upon the king, was suddenly dismissed, and in August, 1829, an ultra-royalist ministry was appointed, at the head of which was Prince Polignac, one of the old royalists, and an early adherent to the Bourbons.

At the opening of the Chambers in March, 1830, the speech from the throne plainly announced the determination of the king to overcome by force any obstacles that might be interposed in the way of his government, concluding with the threat of resuming the concessions made by the charter. As soon as the speech was made public the funds fell; the ministers had a decided majority opposed to them in the Cham-

1823—EARLY SETTLERS IN THE FAR WEST





1823—"WASHINGTON"—FIRST STEAMSHIP BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND GERMANY

ber of Deputies, and a spirited reply was made, declaring that "a concurrence did not exist between the views of the Government and the wishes of the people; that the administration was actuated by a distrust of the nation, and that the nation, on the other hand, was agitated with apprehensions which threatened its prosperity and repose." The king then prorogued the Chambers, and on the 17th of May a royal ordinance declared them dissolved and ordered new elections—measures that produced the greatest excitement throughout France.

CONQUEST OF ALGERIA.

In the meantime, the king and his ministers, hoping to facilitate their projects and overcome their unpopularity by gratifying the taste of the French people for military glory, declared war against Algiers, the Dey having refused to pay long-standing claims of French citizens, and having insulted the honor of France by striking the French consul when the latter was paying him a visit of ceremony. A fleet of ninety-seven vessels, carrying more than forty thousand soldiers, embarked at Toulon on the 10th of May, on the 14th of June effected a landing on the African coast, and on the 5th of July compelled Algiers to capitulate after a feeble resistance. The Dey was allowed to retire unmolested to Italy, and his vast treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors.

REACTION IN FRANCE.

The success of the French arms in Africa occasioned great exultation in France, but did nothing towards allaying the excited state of public feeling against the detested ministry. The elections ordered to be held in June and the early part of July resulted in a large increase of opposition members, and the ministerial party was left in a miserable minority. The infatuated ministry, however, instead of withdrawing, madly resolved to set the voice of the nation at defiance, and to even subvert the constitutional privileges granted by the charter. They therefore induced the king to publish, on the morning of the 26th of July, three royal ordinances, the first dissolving the newly-elected Chamber of Deputies, the second changing the law of elections, sweeping off three-fourths of the former constituency, and nearly extinguishing the representative system, and the third suspending the liberty of the press. In the ministerial report, published at the same time with these

ordinances, the ministers argued, in favor of the latter measure, that "at all epochs the periodical press had only been, and from its nature must ever be, an instrument of disorder and sedition!"

In defiance of these ordinances, the conductors of the liberal journals determined to publish their papers, and on the evening of the same day, the 26th, they published an address to their countrymen, declaring that "the Government stripped itself of the character of law, and was no longer entitled to their obedience"—language that would probably have exposed them to the penalties of treason if the contest had terminated differently. It was late in the day before intelligence of the arbitrary measures of Government was generally circulated through Paris; then crowds began to assemble in the streets, cries of "Down with the Ministry!" and "The Charter Forever!" were heard; fearless orators harangued the people, and during the night the lamps in several of the streets were demolished, and the windows of the hotel of Polignac broken. So little had the king anticipated any popular outbreak, that he passed the day of the 26th in the amusements of the chase; and it appears that the infatuated ministry had not even dreamed of a revolution as the consequence of their obnoxious measures.

THE REVOLUTION BEGINS.

On the morning of the 27th several of the journalists printed and distributed their papers, but their doors were soon closed and their presses broken by the police. This morning the king appointed Marshal Marmont commander-in-chief of the forces in Paris, but it was not till four in the afternoon that orders were given to put the troops under arms, when they were marched to different stations to aid the police and overawe the people. The latter then began to arm; some skirmishing occurred with the troops; during the night the lamps throughout the city were demolished, and, under cover of the darkness, many of the streets were barricaded with paving stones torn up for the purpose. At the close of the day Marmont had informed the king that tranquillity was restored, and therefore no additional troops were sent for, nor were the great depots of arms and ammunition guarded.

At an early hour on the morning of the 28th armed multitudes appeared on the streets, and numbers of the National Guard, which the king had previously disbanded, appeared in their uniforms among the

throng, and with them the famous tricolored flag so dear to the hearts of all Frenchmen. To the surprise of Marmont, the king and the ministry, the riot which on the previous evening they had thought suppressed had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. By nine o'clock the flag of the people waved on the pinnacles of Notre Dame, and at eleven surmounted the central tower of the Hotel de Ville, which was afterwards, however, retaken by the royal troops. Marmont showed great indecision in his movements ; his columns were everywhere assailed with musketry from the barricades, from the windows of houses, from the corners of the streets and from the narrow alleys and passages which abound in Paris, and paving stones and other missiles were showered upon them from the housetops. The royal guards were disheartened ; the troops of the line showed great reluctance to fire upon the citizens, and the 28th closed with the withdrawal of the royal forces from every position in which they had attempted to establish themselves during the day.

FLIGHT OF THE KING.

The contest was renewed early on the morning of the third day, when several distinguished military characters appeared as leaders of the people, and among them General Lafayette, who took command of the National Guard ; but, while the issue was yet doubtful, several regiments of the line went over to the insurgents, who, thus strengthened and encouraged, rushed upon the Louvre and the Tuileries and speedily overcame the troops stationed there. So sudden was the assault that Marmont himself with difficulty escaped, leaving behind him more than twenty thousand dollars of the public funds. About half-past three P. M. the last of the military posts in Paris surrendered, the royal troops who escaped having in the meantime retreated to St. Cloud, where were the king and the ministry, now in consternation for their own safety. The revolution was speedily completed by the installation of a provisional government. On the 31st Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, the most popular of the royal family, accepted the office of Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom ; when the chambers met he was elected to the throne, and on the 9th of August took the oath to support the constitutional charter.

The results of the revolutionary movement in France and the overthrow of the elder branch of the Bourbons, in defiance of the guarantee

of the Congress of Vienna, spread alarm among the sovereigns of Continental Europe, and the Emperor of Russia went so far as not only to hesitate about acknowledging the title of the citizen King of France, but, it is believed, was prepared to support the claims of the exiled Charles X, when the popular triumph in England, in the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832, by converting a former ally into an enemy, raised up obstacles that arrested his measures. Charles X, after having abdicated the throne, was permitted to retire, unmolested, from France; but the Ministers, attempting to escape, were arrested and afterwards brought to trial, when three of them, including Polignac, were declared guilty of treason and sentenced to imprisonment for life. At the end of six years they were released from confinement—indignation towards them having given place to pity.

BELGIAN REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution of 1830 produced a powerful sensation throughout Europe, and aroused an insurrectionary spirit wherever the people complained of real or fancied wrongs, while the continental sovereigns, on the other hand, alarmed for the safety of their thrones, looked with jealousy upon every political movement that originated with the people, and prepared to suppress, by military force, the incipient efforts of rebellion. The Belgians, who had been compelled by the Congress of Vienna to unite with the Hollanders in forming the kingdom of the Netherlands, having long been goaded by unjust laws and treated rather as vassals than as subjects of the Dutch King, judging the period favorable for dissolving their union with a people foreign to them in language, manners and interests, arose in insurrection at Brussels in the latter part of August, 1830, and, after a contest of four days' duration, drove the Dutch authorities and garrison from the city.

In vain were efforts made by the Prince of Orange to reconcile the conflicting demands of the Dutch and the Belgians, and again unite the two people under one government. The proposals of the Prince were disavowed by his father, the King of Holland, and equally rejected by the Belgians; and on the 4th of October the latter made a formal declaration of their independence. Soon after the representatives of the five great powers, France, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia and Austria, assembled at London, agreed to a protocol in favor of an armistice, and directed that hostilities should cease between the Dutch and the Belgians.

The Belgians having decided upon a constitutional monarchy, first offered the crown to the Duke of Nemours, the second son of Louis Philippe, but the latter declined the proffered honor on behalf of his son; after which the Belgian Congress elected Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, for their King. As the Dutch continued to hold the city of Antwerp, contrary to the determination of the five great powers, a French army of 65,000 men, under Marshal Gerard, entered Belgium in November, 1832, and after encountering an obstinate defence compelled the surrender of the place on the 24th of December. Since her separation from Holland, Belgium has increased rapidly in every industrial pursuit and social improvement.

UNREST IN POLAND.

By the decrees of the Congress of Vienna most of that part of Poland which Napoleon had erected into the Grand Duchy of Warsaw and conferred upon his ally the King of Saxony, was re-established as an independent kingdom, to be united to the crown of Russia, but with a separate constitution and administration; on the 20th of June, 1815, the Russian Emperor Alexander was proclaimed King of Poland. The mild character of Alexander had inspired the Poles with the hopes that he would protect them in the enjoyment of their liberties; but his fine professions soon began to prove delusive; ere long none but Russians held the chief places of government; the article of the constitution establishing liberty of the press was nullified; publicity of debate in the Polish diet was abolished; and numerous State prosecutions embittered the feeling of the Poles against their tyrants.

On the accession of Nicholas to the throne of Russia, in December, 1825, although the Lieutenancy of Poland was entrusted to a Pole, yet the real power was invested in the King's brother, the Archduke Constantine, who held the appointment of Commander-in-Chief of the army. Constantine proved to be the worst of tyrants—a second Sejanus—delighting in every species of judicial iniquity and ministerial cruelty. The barbarities of Constantine, sanctioned by Nicholas, revived the old spirit of Polish freedom and nationality; and the successful examples of France and Belgium roused the Poles again to action. Secret societies, organized for the express purpose of securing the liberty of Poland and uniting again under one government those portions that had been torn

asunder and despoiled by the rapacity of Russia, Prussia and Austria, existed not only in Poland proper and Lithuania, but also in Volhynia and Podolia, and even in the old provinces of Ukraine, which, it might be supposed, had long since lost all recollections of Polish glory.

OUTBREAK AT WARSAW.

The fear of detection and arrest on the part of some members of one of these societies, led to the first outbreak at Warsaw, on the evening of the 29th of November, 1830. The students of a military school at Warsaw, one hundred and eighty in number, at first attempted to seize Constantine at his quarters, two miles from the city; but during the struggle with his attendants, of whom the Russian General Gendre, a man infamous for his crimes, was killed, the Duke escaped to his guards, who, being attacked in a position from which retreat was difficult, lost three hundred of their number, when the students returned to the city, liberated every State prisoner, and were joined by the school of the engineers and the students of the university. A party entered the only two theatres open, calling out, "Women home—men to arms!" The arsenal was next forced, and in one hour and a half from the first movement 40,000 men were in arms. Constantine fell back to the frontier. Chlopiki was first appointed by the provisional government Commander-in-Chief of the army of Poland, and afterwards was made Dictator; but he soon resigned, and Adam Czartoriski was appointed President.

RUSSIANS ROUTED.

After two months' delay in fruitless attempts to negotiate with the Emperor Nicholas, who refused all terms but absolute submission, the inevitable conflict began—Russia already having assembled an army of 200,000 men under the command of Field Marshal Diebitsch, the hero of the Turkish war, while the Poles had only 50,000 men equipped for the fight. On the 5th of February, 1831, the Russians crossed the Polish frontier; on the 18th their advanced post were within ten miles of Warsaw; and on the 20th a general action was brought on, which resulted in the Poles retiring in good order from the field of battle. On the 25th 40,000 Poles, under Prince Radzvil, withstood the shock of more than 100,000 of the enemy; and at the close of the day 10,000 of the Russians lay dead on the field, and several thousand prisoners were taken.

Skryznecki, being now appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Polish forces, concerted several night attacks for the evening of the 31st, which resulted in the total rout of 20,000 Russians and the capture of a vast quantity of muskets, cannon and ammunition. These successes were so rapidly followed up that before the end of April the Russians were driven either across the Bug into their own territories or northward into the Prussian dominions. The conduct of Prussia in affording the Russians a secure retreat on neutral territory and furnishing them with abundant supplies, while in similar cases the Poles were detained as prisoners, destroyed all advantages of Polish valor. Austria, likewise, permitted the Russians to pass over neutral ground to outflank the Poles, but detained the latter as prisoners if they once set foot on Austrian territory. Thus Russia and Austria interpreted and enforced the principles of the "Holy Alliance."

THE FALL OF POLAND.

While the Poles were stationed at Minsk, Skryznecki, uniting all his forces in that vicinity, to the number of 20,000, suddenly crossed the Bug and forced his way to Ostrolenk, a distance of 80 miles, where, on the 26th of May, he engaged in battle with 60,000 Russians. The combat was terrific; no quarter was asked and none was given. The Poles, led by the heroic General Bem, lost one-fourth of their number. The loss of the Russians was less in proportion, but they had three generals killed on the field. In the following month both the Russian Commander-in-Chief, Marshal Diebitsch, and the Archduke Constantine, died suddenly. About the same time a conspiracy for setting at liberty all the Russian prisoners, 13,000 in number, was detected in Warsaw.

Dissensions among the Polish chiefs and the want of energetic government soon produced their natural consequences of divided counsels and disunited efforts in the field; and by the 6th of September, during the strife of factions at Warsaw, a Russian army of 100,000 men, supported by 300 pieces of cannon, had assembled for the storming of the city. Although defended with heroism, after two days' fighting, in which the Russians had 20,000 slain, and the Poles about half that number, Warsaw surrendered to the Russian general, Paskewitch—the main body of the Polish army and the most distinguished citizens retiring from the city, and afterwards dispersing when no further hopes remained of serving their ill-fated country. Large numbers crossed the frontiers and went

into voluntary exile in other lands. Most of the Polish generals who surrendered under an amnesty were sent to distant parts of the Russian Empire ; and the soldiers, and the Polish nobility were consigned by thousands to the dungeons and mines of Siberia.

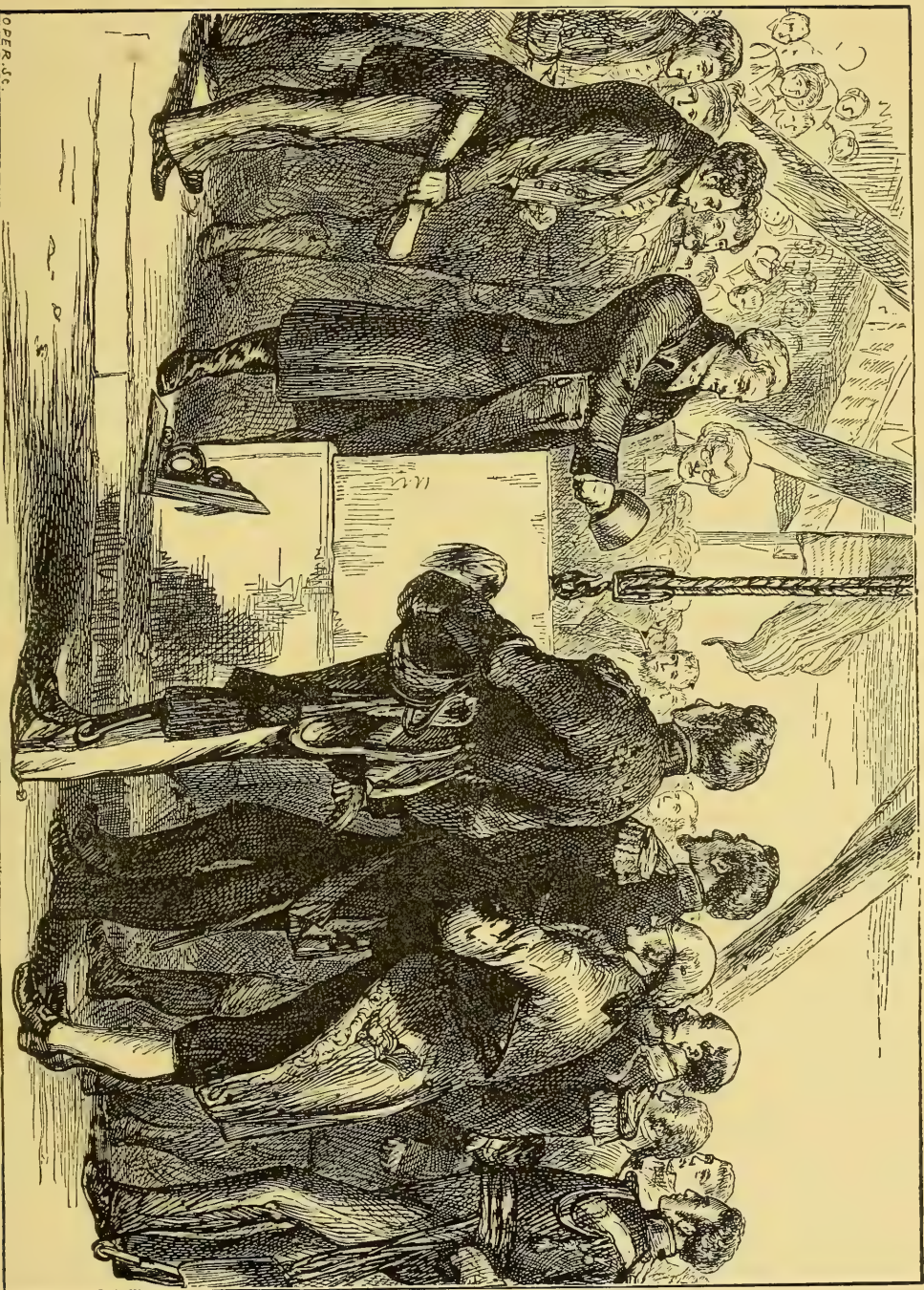
REFORM LAW IN ENGLAND.

At the time of the accession of William IV of England, in 1830, a Tory ministry, headed by the Duke of Wellington, was in power ; but decided sentiment of the nation in favor of reform in all the branches of government occasioned its resignation in November of the same year. A Whig ministry, pledged for reform, with Earl Grey at its head, then came into power ; and on the 1st of March of the following year, Lord John Russell brought forward in Parliament the ministerial plan for reforming the representation of England, Scotland and Ireland, which, if adopted, would extend the right of suffrage to half a million additional voters, disfranchise fifty-six of the so-called rotten or decayed boroughs, and more nearly equalize representation throughout the kingdom. After a long but animated debate, the bill passed a second reading in the House of Commons by a majority of only one, but was lost on the third reading, the vote being 291 for the bill, and 299 against it.

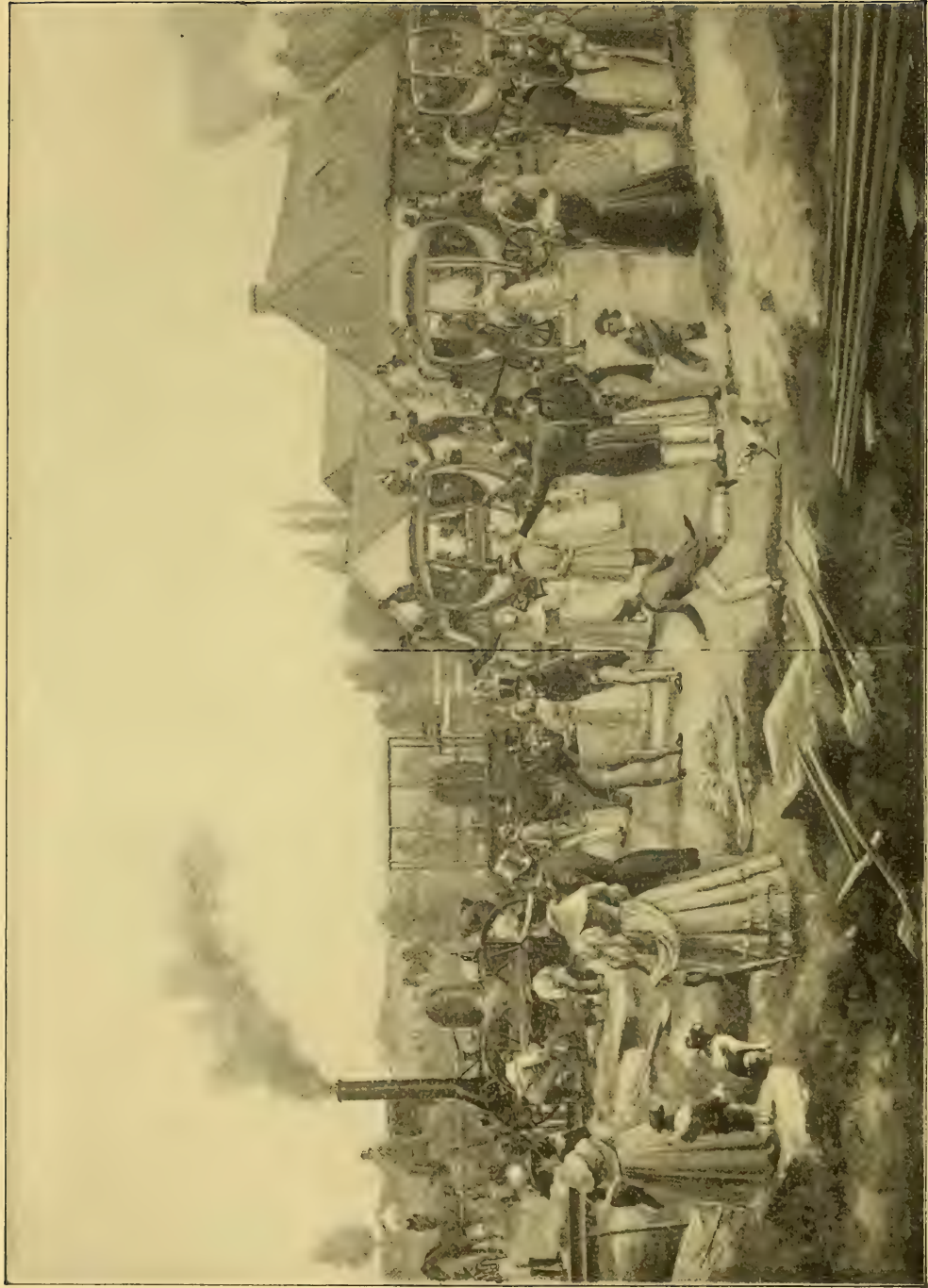
By advice of the ministers the King hastily dissolved Parliament, and ordered new elections for the purpose of better ascertaining the sense of the people. The elections took place amid great excitement, and the advocates of reform were returned by nearly all the large constituencies. The new Parliament was opened on the 14th of June, 1831. The reform bill, being again introduced, passed the Commons by a majority of 113, but was rejected by the Lords, whose numbers remained unchanged, by a majority of 41. The rejection of the bill by the Lords led to strong manifestations of popular resentment against the nobility ; serious riots occurred in Nottingham and Derby ; and at Bristol many public buildings and an immense amount of private property were destroyed, ninety persons were killed or wounded ; five of the rioters were afterwards executed, and many were sentenced to transportation.

TRIUMPH OF REFORM.

On the 12th of December Lord John Russell a third time introduced a reform bill similar to the former two ; and on the 23d of March, 1832,



OBER, J.C.



1825—FIRST STEAM RAILWAY BETWEEN STOCKTON AND DARLINGTON, ENGLAND

it passed the Commons by a majority of 116, but was defeated in the House of Lords by a majority of 40. The ministry now advised the King to create a sufficient number of peers to insure the passage of the bill; and on his refusal to proceed to such extremities, all the members of the cabinet resigned. Political unions were now formed throughout the country. The people determined to refuse payment of taxes, and demanded that the ministers should be reinstated. There were no riots, but the people had risen in their collective strength, determined to assert their just rights. The King yielded to the force of public opinion, and Earl Grey and his colleagues were reinstated in office, with the assurance that, if necessary, a sufficient number of new peers should be created to secure the passing of the bill. When the Lords were apprised of this fact they withdrew their opposition; but it is worthy of remark that many of them, and all the bishops, left their seats on the final passage of the bills, which, having been rapidly hurried through both houses, received the royal assent on the 7th of June.

DOINGS IN VARIOUS LANDS.

Revolutionary disturbances occurred in 1831 in Modena and the Papal States, which were suppressed by Austrian intervention. In that year Charles Albert succeeded Charles Felix as King of Sardinia, and thus another step was taken toward the ultimate reunion and rehabilitation of Italy. Gregory XVI was elected Pope in February, 1831.

The first disturbance in the East after the treaty of Adrianople was caused by the ambition of Mehemet Ali, of Egypt. He had received the gift of the island of Crete in return for his aid to Turkey against Greece, but he soon sought further acquisitions. In 1831 he picked a quarrel with the Pacha of Acre and invaded Syria. The Sultan sent an army against him, but the Turks were completely routed at Konieh on the 21st of December, 1832. Constantinople itself was threatened, and the Sultan begged the European powers to save him from the Egyptian conqueror. Russia responded, but England and France sided with Mehemet Ali. In the end a treaty was concluded by which Mehemet was confirmed in his possession of Crete, and was made sovereign of Syria under the shadowy suzerainty of the Sultan. Enraged at such action by the Western powers, the Sultan at once made the secret treaty of Unkiar Skelessi with Russia on the 8th of July, 1833, by which Tur-

key was placed practically under Russian protection, and the Dardanelles were to be closed against all but Russian vessels.

Abd-el-Kader, the great chieftain of Algeria, made peace with France and was recognized as Emir of Mascara, in 1834. In 1835 the French attacked him and burned Mascara. In 1836 a war between them was maintained with varying fortunes, and in 1837 he yielded to the French in the treaty of Tafna.

We must notice, also, an attempt of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the Emperor Napoleon, to excite an insurrection at Strasbourg, in October, 1836, for the purpose of overthrowing the French Government.

THE CARLIST WAR.

Ferdinand VII of Spain, having been restored to power by French intervention in 1823, was able to finish his reign in comparative peace. In 1829 he married his fourth wife, Maria Cristina of Naples, a sister of the Duchess of Berry. She was a woman of detestable morals but great ability. His former marriages had produced no children, but he still hoped for issue, and made a proclamation declaring the Salic law abolished in Spain, so that a daughter, should he have one, could succeed to the throne. Against this his brothers, Don Carlos and Don Francisco, made formal protest, as did also the Bourbon monarchs of Naples and France. In 1830 the Queen gave birth to a daughter, Isabella, who was forthwith recognized as heir to the throne. During a severe illness the King was induced to withdraw his proclamation and re-establish the Salic law, but on recovery of his health he was persuaded by his wife to renew the proclamation of a Pragmatic Sanction. He died in 1833, and little Isabella was proclaimed Queen, with her mother as Regent. Don Carlos at once claimed the crown, as the lawful heir under the Salic law, and rallied to his support a large part of the people of Spain, especially those of the Basque provinces. In order to defend herself the Queen Regent made appeal to the people with a liberal constitution and an elected Parliament. Thus began the first of those Carlist wars which for many years ravaged and unsettled Spain. At first the Carlists were largely victorious through the superiority of their generals; later the Cristinos gained the upper hand through the genius of the ambitious general, Espartero.

CHAPTER XV.

Spanish Attack upon Mexico—Usurpation of Bustamente—Defence of the Federal Constitution—Proceedings of Santa Anna—Texas Declared Independent—New Grenada, Venezuela and Ecuador—Personal Incidents—First Passenger Railway—Exploring the Niger—Copyright Reform—Obituary—Slave Insurrection—Events Abroad—Girard College Founded—Chastising Savage Sumatrians—The Cholera Epidemic—The Death Roll—Treaty with Russia—Rioting in the United States—Shooting Stars—Necrology—Great Fire in New York—Colt's Revolver.

AT the session of the new Mexican Congress in January, 1829, the House of Representatives proclaimed Vincent Guerréro to be duly elected President, on the constitutional ground that he had the majority of the *legal* votes. General Bustamente, who had been supported by the partisans of Pedraza, was declared to be duly elected Vice-President; and in organizing the new administration, Zavala, then Governor of the State of Mexico, was appointed Secretary of State, and General Santa Anna Secretary of War.

USURPATION OF BUSTAMENTE.

Soon after the declaration of Congress in favor of the election of Guerréro, that body passed a resolution investing him with dictatorial powers, in anticipation of an invasion by Spain, to recover possession of Mexico. The Spanish army of 4500 men, sent for that purpose, were defeated, and compelled to retire. The continuance of his extraordinary power was now no longer necessary; yet Guerréro continued to exercise it, and in a manner and for purposes not contemplated. This brought upon him the censure of Bustamente and others, who saw in his measures a desire to perpetuate his dictatorship. Yet, on the 11th of December, Guerréro resigned his dictatorship into the hands of Congress, and

retired to his estate. Bustamente immediately assumed or usurped the presidency, pretending that he was actuated solely by a desire to restore the constitution, which had been violated in the elevation of Guerréro to the presidency. The latter now fled to the mountains, but circumstances, in the spring of 1830, seeming to favor an attempt to regain his lost authority, he embarked in the enterprise, and the whole country was again in arms. He was, however, unsuccessful, and falling into the hands of his opponents, he was condemned as a traitor, and executed in February, 1831.

DEFENCE OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

The measures of Bustamente directly tended towards the establishment of a strong central government, and those of Guerréro had been in favor of a perpetual dictatorship. On the ground of Bustamente's procedure in his government, Santa Anna, in 1832, placed himself at the head of the garrison of Vera Cruz, and, as a pretext for revolt, demanded a re-organization of the Ministry. His declarations were in favor of the constitution and the laws, and consequently rallied the friends of the federal system to his support. War soon began to rage, and it was not until nearly a year that an accommodation was made, when it was agreed that Pedraza should be restored to the Government. He was accordingly restored, and by means of his favorable notice of Santa Anna, and now his friend, but formerly his enemy, he exerted such an influence that the latter was elected his successor in 1833. Gomez Farias was chosen Vice-President. The federal system was now apparently re-established under the new administration.

PROCEEDINGS OF SANTA ANNA.

From the first moment of Santa Anna's accession to the presidency, he was inflamed with a desire for dictatorial power. He seized an opportunity to desert the federal republican party and joined the centralist faction. By military order he dissolved the Constitutional Congress in May, 1834, and in January, 1835, he assembled a revolutionary and aristocratic Congress, which deposed the Vice-President Farias and elected General Barragan, a leading centralist, in his place. About the same time, through the influence of Santa Anna, the Constitution of 1824 was abolished by Congress, as were also all the State Constitutions and

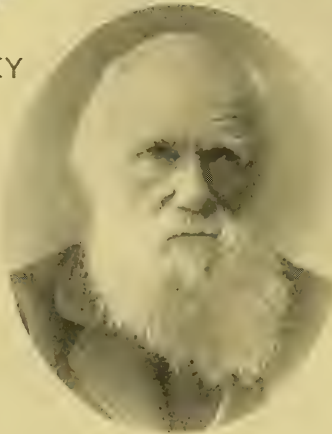




PROFESSOR HUXLEY



LORD HERSCHEL



CHARLES DARWIN



ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT



JUSTUS LIEBIG

State authorities, and a central republic was established in its place. So violent a measure proved unacceptable to several of the States. Zaca-tecas submitted, and declared for centralism. "The torch of liberty was now extinguished in the republic, and military despotism fully established." No! it was not quite extinguished. One Mexican Territory, Texas, with her 50,000 bold inhabitants, chiefly emigrants from the United States, was ready to resist the dictates of a tyrant and usurper. Santa Anna felt at once the necessity, if his rule was to be maintained, of reducing Texas and of defeating the Americans, or driving them out of the country. He made the attempt to do so with an army of 8000 men, and at first seemed to be successful.

On the 23d of February, 1836, he appeared before the town of San Antonio, at the head of a body of 1000 men, the advanced guard of the Mexican army. The town was immediately taken, but the fort held out, although garrisoned by 150 men. A constant bombardment was kept up by the besiegers, yet on the 1st of March a detachment of 32 men from Gonzales succeeded in forcing their way through the Mexican lines and throwing themselves into the fort. The Mexicans were soon reinforced to the number of 4500 men, and at midnight of the 6th of March made a desperate assault upon the place. The garrison fought desperately until daylight, when only seven of them were found alive. These were all put to the sword. The Mexicans, it is said, lost a thousand men in this affair.

TEXAS DECLARED INDEPENDENT.

The Texans, however, were not dispirited by this disaster. On the 2d of March a general convention, held at the town of Washington, declared Texas a sovereign and independent State. The Mexican army, immediately after the capture of San Antonio, advanced upon Goliad, which was garrisoned by a body of 350 men under Colonel Fanning. That officer, in obedience to orders from his commander, blew up the fort and retreated; but after marching a few miles he was surrounded in a prairie by a body of 2000 Mexicans. Fanning's party defended themselves with great courage, and the Mexican commander proposed a capitulation. Fanning agreed to the proposal, and surrendered on a stipulation that his men should be shipped to New Orleans within eight days. The Mexicans marched their prisoners off to Goliad, and on the 26th of

March shot them all in cold blood, with the exception of four, who made their escape.

General alarm and dismay now pervaded the country, and a great many inhabitants sought shelter in American territory. The Indians were rising in the North, and the invading army continued to massacre all that opposed them. It was found necessary to order a strong force of United States troops to the Texan frontier to keep the savages in check. The Texan army, which was now commanded by General Houston, retreated before Santa Anna, until they reached the river San Jacinto, where they made a stand. The Mexicans came up, and on the 21st of April a most sanguinary and decisive battle was fought at this place. The Mexicans were double in strength to their opponents, yet the attack of the Texans was made with such courage and fury that in fifteen minutes the Mexicans were completely routed; 600 of them were killed on the spot, and as many more taken prisoners. Of the Texans, 26 were killed and wounded. Santa Anna fled from the field, and was pursued fifteen miles by the Texan mounted riflemen, when his horse foundered and he took shelter in the woods. Here, after a long search, he was found hidden in the top of a tree, and made prisoner.

Santa Anna was compelled to sign a treaty by which the Mexican troops were withdrawn from Texas, and agreed not to serve against that country during the war of independence. Santa Anna, after some detention occasioned by the exasperated feelings of the people against him, was set at liberty and proceeded to Washington. President Jackson furnished him with a passage to Vera Cruz in a ship of war of the United States. The independence of Texas seems to have been permanently established by the victory of San Jacinto. The United States formally recognized it on the 3d of March, 1837, and Great Britain on the 16th of November, 1840.

NEW GRENADA, VENEZUELA AND ECUADOR.

On the 4th of May, 1830, Senor Joachim Mosquera was elected President, and General Domingo Caicedo, Vice-President; but on the 4th of September Mosquera resigned, and Urdanata was appointed temporary President until the arrival of Bolivar, whose return to power was decreed by a meeting of soldiers and citizens; but Bolivar died at Carthagena, December 17th, the same year. Venezuela again joined

Colombia for a short time ; but in November, 1831, a new separation took place, and since that time the Republic of Colombia was divided into three republics, viz. : New Grenada, Venezuela, and Ecuador. Subsequently New Grenada assumed the name of the United States of Colombia, or simply Colombia, which latter it now retains.

PERSONAL INCIDENTS.

Pope Leo XII died in February, 1829, and in March was succeeded by Pius VIII. This year also witnessed the death of Frederick von Schlegel, the great German author, critic and philosopher ; of Thomas Young, the English scientist and Egyptologist ; of Sir Humphrey Davy, the scientist and inventor of the famous miners' safety lamp which bears his name ; and of Lamarck, the French scientist.

We have elsewhere spoken of the organization of the strange community of Mormons. It was in 1830 that the Mormon Church was formally founded, by Joseph Smith, at Manchester, N. Y.

The year 1830 was marked with the death of the new Pope, Pius VIII, in November. His successor, Gregory XVI, was not elected until February of the following year.

Dom Pedro I of Brazil abdicated in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II, in 1831.

FIRST PASSENGER RAILWAY.

The earliest railroads in both England and America were used for the transportation of freight, especially of stone and coal. Their utility for such purposes having been established, the next step was to put them to use for the conveyance of passengers. The first to be thus used was the road between Manchester and Liverpool, in England. This was formally opened for travel in 1830, and at that time the era of passenger transportation by steam railroads may be said to have begun. It was not long before passenger railroads were opened in the United States. Indeed, it was accomplished in that same year, 1830, and in that year, too, the first locomotive was manufactured in this country.

EXPLORING THE NIGER.

For some time the brothers Lander, Englishmen, had been conducting explorations in the west-central parts of Africa. In the year 1830 they succeeded in positively establishing the identity of the Quorra and

Niger rivers. Their work in that region aided materially in the opening up of it to commerce, and laid the foundations of what is now an important British Empire in the Niger basin.

Meantime Arctic exploration proceeded apace, and in 1831 Captain John Ross, with his expedition under the patronage of Felix Booth, ascertained definitely the precise location of the magnetic pole, appropriately naming the land Boothia Felix.

At about the same time the source of the Mississippi River was discovered in Lake Itasca, 2800 miles from the river's mouth at the Gulf of Mexico.

COPYRIGHT REFORM.

The year 1831 was made memorable to authors and publishers by the adoption of a new law in the United States granting copyright for a term of twenty-eight years, with a renewal for fourteen years.

A few years later, in 1837, agitation for international copyright was begun in the United States, chiefly at Boston, where a number of noteworthy public meetings were held in the interest of the proposed reform. The movement spread to Great Britain, and to the Continent; and Prussia was, in 1837, the first of all nations to enact an international copyright law.

OBITUARY.

James Monroe, who had been President of the United States, died in 1831, and, by a strange coincidence already noted in the cases of Jefferson and Adams, on July 4th.

The same year witnessed the death of Niebuhr, the great German scholar and historian; and of Hegel, one of the foremost philosophers of his age.

SLAVE INSURRECTION.

In the month of August, 1831, a slave insurrection of considerable local importance broke out in Southampton County, Va. It was originated by a crazy sort of vagrant nicknamed "Nat," who had passed among the negroes for some time as a Baptist preacher. His reputation for piety, or fanaticism, had so imposed upon the planters that the wonder only was his influence had not been greater, and the struggle consequently more fierce and bloody. The number of whites massacred on rising was fifty-eight—consisting principally of decrepit men, women and children. The blacks then fled to the swamps, apparently terrified

at their own atrocities ; and were presently subdued with but little difficulty, yielding up their leaders to the gallows.

EVENTS ABROAD.

Abroad, the American minister at the French court, William C. Rives, this year effected a treaty with that nation, by the terms of which 25,000,000 of francs were agreed to be paid to the American Government, in appropriate instalments, for spoiliations upon commerce during the turbulent sway of the Emperor Napoleon.

With the Neapolitan Government we had negotiated in vain previous to this year, for an amicable adjustment of claims against it for the sequestration and plunder of American property during the ephemeral reign of Joachim Murat. The sudden appearance in the Bay of Naples of a respectable number of armed United States' vessels, however, together with a peremptory demand from General Jackson's minister, Mr. Nelson, of Maryland, seemed to bring His Majesty of the Two Sicilies to reason. An order was directly given upon his treasurer for the payment of 2,115,000 ducats, or \$1,720,000, to be paid in nine equal instalments, with interest at the rate of 4 per centum until paid.

GIRARD COLLEGE FOUNDED.

Stephen Girard, the great Philadelphia banker, died in December of this year. At the time of his death he was supposed to be the richest man in the nation—possessing about ten millions of dollars in available funds. In the war of 1812-14 he loaned the United States Government \$5,000,000 ; and at the time of his death, with a praiseworthy liberality but little emulated by his trustees since, devised the great mass of his property to various charitable institutions and purposes in and near the city of Philadelphia. His best-known benefaction was the foundation of Girard College, a great educational institution for poor boys.

CHASTISING SAVAGE SUMATRIANS.

On February 1st, 1832, Commodore Downes, in the United States frigate "Potomac," arrived on the coast of Sumatra, being principally on an expedition to chastise a horde of Malay savages for certain outrages upon Americans and their commerce. Among other charges against them was one on account of the ship "Friendship," of Salem.

It appears this vessel had formerly traded with them for spices, etc., when, on a convenient occasion occurring, the barbarians determined upon appropriating to themselves the ship and its contents, after an indiscriminate massacre of the crew, by which they vainly hoped to hide their crime. When the chiefs were applied to for restitution in this case, and the delivery of the murderers, they with characteristic cupidity denied all knowledge of the matter and refused to give any kind of satisfaction. Commodore Downes took prompt and efficient steps directly. In the night of the 6th his frigate was quietly worked in toward shore, and at dawn of day, in the mist, 260 men were landed in detachments, without disturbing the natives. A simultaneous attack was made upon their five forts, which were in about three hours reduced, with much slaughter on the part of the Malays; while a heavy cannonade from the ship at the same time soon laid their town of Quallah Battoo in ashes. The loss of the Americans was but two killed, and eight or ten wounded. A few mountaineers visited the frigate shortly after, when the commodore left word that he should call there again—if necessary.

THE CHOLERA EPIDEMIC.

The cholera pestilence in 1832 ravaged the entire Union. It appears to have crossed the Atlantic with a company of emigrants in ships bound to Quebec and Montreal, from thence spreading quickly in every direction, though mainly and with most severity pursuing the great courses of travel. It broke out in several cities of the United States at about the same time, in the month of July, and raged until autumn set in. In the city of New York 4000 persons are computed to have fallen its victims. Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans suffered in nearly the same ratio, in defiance of all the usual precautionary measures. Boston and the New England States were scourged less severely. On the American Continent nothing but the frosts of winter appeared effectually to arrest its progress; yet, amid the everlasting snows of Russia, it had manifested itself with true Asiatic virulence. Climate seemed to be no safeguard, nor ocean-wide barriers any defence. In mild southern France the number of its victims was frightfully enormous; in the cities of Mexico one-fourth of the population was destroyed; and on the island of Cuba \$100,000,000 worth of slaves are said to have perished in less than ninety days. It is stated that on this

island the coffee-planters mostly escaped the affliction, while the neighboring sugar plantations were completely depopulated.

THE DEATH ROLL.

Death, in various forms, visited the great names of the earth, in the course of 1832. In New York, of the prevailing epidemic, died William H. Maynard, eminent as a State Senator, who left by his will the sum of \$20,000 to establish a law professorship in Hamilton College. In Boston, the celebrated Doctor Spurzheim, founder, in connection with Doctor Gall, of the science of phrenology. In Ohio, the Rt. Rev. Roman Catholic Bishop Fenwick. In Georgia, Thomas Cobb, a revolutionary character, aged 120. In Maryland, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, the last surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence. In New Hampshire, Captain Joseph Pratt, a naval commander of much esteem in the annals of revolutionary coasting. In Rhode Island, Captain Stephen Olney, of whom it is said, he was the first to scale the enemy's fortification, and then shout the command, "Captain Olney's company will form here!" In New Jersey, Philip Freneau, an early and prolific writer of American fugitive poetry. In Connecticut, Judge Hillhouse, a distinguished statesman and lawyer. At Abbotsford, Great Britain, Sir Walter Scott, "the wizard of the north." In London, Baron Tenterden, Chief-justice of the King's Bench. In France, General Lamarque, one of Napoleon's officers. Also, Champollion, the renowned French tourist—and Casimir Perier, a statesman of celebrity in Paris. In Rome, Madame Letitia, mother of Bonaparte. At the palace of Schoenbrunn, near Vienna, Napoleon Francis Charles Joseph, Duke of Reichstadt, only son of Napoleon Bonaparte. To this roll must be added the names of Cuvier, the great French naturalist; Goethe, the greatest of German poets; and Bentham, the social philosopher.

The necrology of 1833 included Commodore Bainbridge, at Philadelphia. General Coffee, at Florence, Alabama. Governor Scott, of Mississippi. Ex-Governors Wolcott, of Connecticut; Skinner, of Vermont; and Edwards, of Illinois. John Randolph, of Roanoke, in Philadelphia. Judge Hall, of North Carolina, a distinguished jurist. Colonel Amos Binney, of Massachusetts. Colonel John Neilson, of New Jersey, and Colonel Nicholas Fish, of New York, revolutionary heroes. Near the mouth of Red River, by explosion on the steamboat "Lioness,"

Senator Johnson, of Louisiana, and fourteen others; strange to relate this said occurrence did not take place on account of a *race*, but was owing to a quantity of gunpowder being stowed carelessly. In England, Lieutenant-Colonel Tarleton, the indefatigable Tory opponent of Sumpter and Marion, at the South. Also Hannah More, the authoress; Wilberforce, the humanitist; Keane, the actor; and Rammohun Roy, the philosopher. In Paris, Marshal Jourdan, and Savary, Duke of Rovigo, noted once as Bonapartists. In Spain, Ferdinand VII.

TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

In 1833 were promulgated the particulars of a treaty between the United States and Russia, which was negotiated at St. Petersburg between Count Nesselrode, on the part of the Emperor, and James Buchanan, in behalf of the States. By its provisions the present liberal system of commerce carried on between the two nations was put upon a permanent basis.

RIOTING IN THE UNITED STATES.

The year 1834 was marked in the United States with an unusual tendency to rioting. Small matters seem in various sections to have been magnified into importance, and the populace incited to acts which resulted in the destruction of life and property. At New Orleans a canal riot broke out between adverse parties of Irish laborers; a body of gens d'armes being sent to quell the disturbance, were fired upon by the mob, which was in turn charged on by the police, when much bloodshed and distress ensued. In New York the abolition riots prevailed for several days; a number of churches and private dwellings were destroyed, with a large amount of property. In Charlestown, Massachusetts, the Ursuline Convent was barbarously demolished.

That a better spirit was about that time pervading the higher class of citizens, we have much satisfaction in knowing; the evidence of this is particularly apparent in an energetic movement to suppress the prevalent pernicious practice of lottery-gambling. In New York and Pennsylvania, more especially, popular feeling had been manifested in favor of the nuisance, to a very discreditable degree; but the good sense of the law-makers triumphed, and, despite the infatuation of the brawlers, effectual penal prohibitory statutes were enacted.

SHOOTING STARS.

The savans of this hemisphere were subject to an unusual excitement about the month of November, 1834. In the previous autumn an astronomical phenomenon of an astonishing and singularly beautiful character had been witnessed; the "shower of stars," as it was termed, had been seen along the whole line of the American Continent, and afforded ample food for much curious conjecture with the learned, both of this country and Europe. A recurrence of the phenomenon was now looked for, and there were nightly watchers on many house-tops, anxious either for the sake of philosophy in particular or an indefinite desire for "enlightenment" in general. The professors at Yale College were applied to, and after devoting a reasonable share of attention to the probabilities of the case, consented to deputize a proper individual to make observations; but their assiduity was of no avail, as it did not result in any peculiarly valuable scientific elucidations.

NECROLOGY.

In the obituary for 1834 appears a name which still shines brilliant in American annals—that of General the Marquis de Lafayette, deceased at Paris, May 20th, in the 76th year of his age. In England, Prince Hoare, Charles Lamb and S. T. Coleridge, each of celebrity for literary attainments. In Germany, Schliermacher, the great preacher, theologian and philosopher.

GREAT FIRE IN NEW YORK.

Near the end of the year 1835 an unparalleled conflagration visited the city of New York, the effects of which were so extensive as to be felt more or less in every direction throughout the land. It is computed that nearly \$20,000,000 worth of property was destroyed, without estimating the injury and loss from individual failures and suspension of business. The fire broke out early on the night of the 16th of December, the thermometer at the time standing at zero; of course the intensity of cold rendered engines and hydrants of but little use, though the devotion of firemen to their duties still shone conspicuous and bright as ever. At two o'clock on the morning of the 17th, Lieutenant Reynolds, with a detachment of marines from the Navy Yard at Brooklyn, and shortly after Captain Mix, with a body of sailors under arms, arrived on the

ground; they rendered very essential service in guarding property and taking charge of a quantity of gunpowder brought from the magazine at Red Hook for the purpose of stopping the ravages of the flames by explosion. After the devouring element had swept away between thirty and forty acres of substantial buildings, mostly stores filled with rich merchandise, a stop was put to the further spread of desolation by making use of the powder and exploding certain buildings. As an instance of one of the uses of law, it may be mentioned that the owners of said exploded buildings subsequently brought suit against the city for allowing their property to be thus destroyed, and damages in full were recovered.

COLT'S REVOLVER.

Colonel Samuel Colt, of Hartford, Conn., in 1835, obtained a patent for his invention of a revolving pistol, and thus marked a new era in the history of firearms and of the arts of war.

In that same year the considerable migration of Dutch settlers from Cape Colony, known as the Great Trek, began, and led to the foundation of the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal.

A literary incident of the first magnitude in 1836 was the appearance of Charles Dickens' "Pickwick Papers."

Ex-President Madison and A. L. de Jussieu, the French botanist, died in 1836.

CHAPTER XVI.

Martin Van Buren becomes President of the United States—The Great Panic—Continuance of the War in Florida—Internal Improvements—Difficulties in the State of Maine—Incidents of the Administration—Changes of Opinion Among the People—An Exciting Campaign.

ANDREW JACKSON was succeeded, in 1837, by Martin Van Buren, who had held the office of Vice-President the preceding four years, and who, in his administration, continued the same general policy as that of his predecessor.

THE GREAT PANIC.

In the spring of this year (1837) commenced the greatest commercial revulsion ever known in this country. A spirit of extravagant speculation had, for some years, prevailed; a multitude of State banks had been chartered, by means of which there was a great expansion of paper currency; numerous and very expensive public works, as canals, railroads, etc., were undertaken by States and incorporated companies; immense importations of foreign goods were made; and real estate, especially in cities and villages, was raised far above its intrinsic value. At length the crisis came, with tremendous effect. The panic extended throughout the entire country, and all confidence and all credit were at an end.

On the 10th of May, all the banks in the city of New York suspended specie payment; and the suspension soon became general throughout the country. The mercantile classes were subjected to the greatest embarrassments, and failures were numerous in all the commercial cities. In the city of New York alone, the list of failures, including only the more considerable ones, exhibited an amount of upwards of \$60,000,000.

The national government became involved in the general embarrassment, inasmuch as the banks in which the public deposits were

placed, had, like the rest, suspended specie payment. In this state of affairs, the President convoked an extra session of Congress, to meet on the 4th of September. Congress passed an act postponing, to the 1st of January, 1839, the payment to the States of the fourth instalment of the surplus revenue, and authorized an issue of treasury notes to the amount of \$10,000,000, to be receivable in payment of public dues. A bill for placing the public money in the hands of receivers-general, called the Sub-Treasury or Independent Treasury Bill, was recommended by the President, and passed the Senate, but was lost in the House. This bill, after repeated failures, was finally passed and enacted into a law in June, 1840. In August, 1838, the banks throughout the country generally resumed specie payment.

In 1837, a rebellion against the British government broke out in Canada. It was sustained by some men of talents and influence, and disturbed the peace of that country through the following year (1838). A considerable number of citizens of the United States, belonging to the parts of Vermont and New York which border on Canada, unhappily took part with the insurgents. Their course was condemned by the general government; and the President issued a proclamation, exhorting such citizens of the United States, as had violated their duties, to return peaceably to their respective homes, and warning them that the laws would be rigidly enforced against such as should render themselves liable to punishment.

CONTINUANCE OF THE WAR IN FLORIDA.

The Indian war in Florida continued to be prosecuted during the administration of President Van Buren. Large sums of money were expended in maintaining it. \$3,500,000 had been appropriated on its account, during the years 1836 and 1837, under General Jackson; and at the extra session in October, 1837, \$1,600,000 were appropriated; and in 1838, the expenses for supporting the war in that quarter against the Indians, amounted to as large a sum as in either of the two preceding years. "When the difficulty arose with these Indians, President Jackson supposed that it would soon be terminated. And no one, at that time, had any reason to suppose that it would continue for years, and have cost the government \$8,000,000 or \$10,000,000. Other measures than those of force would, probably, have terminated the

difficulty at an early period. It would certainly have saved many valuable lives now lost to the country, and been far more satisfactory to the friends of humanity throughout the Union."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

During Mr. Van Buren's administration, large sums were appropriated for internal improvements, although the President was generally opposed to the policy. The expenditures were, however, for purposes which the advocates of State rights, for the most part, believed to be legitimate, such as repairs on the Cumberland road and its continuance through the States of Indiana and Illinois; for light-houses, life-boats, buoys, and monuments, in behalf of the interests of navigation. In reference to these objects, there was always far more agreement among the different parties in Congress, than in reference to anything that seemed less essential to the nation's benefit.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE STATE OF MAINE.

The North-eastern boundary had long been a source of difficulty between the United States and England. The question had seemed on the eve of a decision by arms between the British authorities in New Brunswick and the State of Maine. Armed bands had been sent out on both sides to the territory in dispute. General Scott had been sent to the scene of contention by the President, and the so-called Aroostook war, through the General's exertions, was, for the time, quieted, yet not settled. The danger attending this state of things induced Mr. Van Buren, on the 26th of February, 1839, to communicate to Congress a message on this subject, which resulted in an act of Congress, giving the President additional power for the defence of the country, in certain cases, against invasion, or any attempt on the part of Great Britain to exercise exclusive jurisdiction over the disputed territory.

He was authorized, in this event, to accept the services of any number of volunteers, not exceeding 50,000. The sum of \$10,000,000 was appropriated for the President to employ in executing the provisions of this act. At the same time, an appropriation was made for the sending of a special minister to England, should it be expedient in the opinion of the President.

INCIDENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

In Mr. Van Buren's time the anti-slavery agitation increased steadily. One tragic incident of it was the martyrdom of Lovejoy, an anti-slavery editor, in Illinois, at the hands of a pro-slavery mob. The Territory of Iowa was formed. Chicago was incorporated as a city. The famous Indian chief, Osceola, was finally captured. And on the whole, it was a period of much political and other activity.

The rise of Mormonism demands brief notice. One Joseph Smith made public a book, known as the Book of Mormon, which he declared had been revealed to him supernaturally. Adopting this as a new Bible, he organized a religious sect, which attempted, in 1840, to make a settlement at Nauvoo, Illinois. The principles and practices of the Mormons were objectionable to their neighbors, and in 1844 the colony was forcibly broken up and expelled, and Smith himself was killed. The Mormons, under the leadership of Brigham Young, then made their way far into the western wilderness and established a new colony on the Great Salt Lake Valley in Utah.

CHANGES OF OPINION AMONG THE PEOPLE.

Although the President, during his visit to his native State in the summer of 1839, for the first time since his inauguration, was everywhere greeted with enthusiasm by his political friends, and with great personal respect by his opponents, yet it was evident that the political horizon wore a different aspect from what it formerly had done. The derangement of the currency and prostration of trade, attributed by many to the mal-administration of government, had caused great political changes. Of the representatives in the Twenty-Sixth Congress, there were one hundred and nineteen Democrats and one hundred and eighteen Whigs, leaving out of view five representatives from New Jersey, whose seats were contested. After several fierce debates, the Democratic members from this State were admitted.

Mr. Van Buren, in 1840, being a candidate for re-election, failed to carry the suffrages of the people. The great political changes, from causes already intimated, as shown in the State elections, gave, at the outset, but little hope of his success.

AN EXCITING CAMPAIGN.

The last year of Mr. Van Buren's administration was marked with the most exciting political campaign the country had yet known. The

Democrats renominated him. The Whigs put forward William Henry Harrison as their candidate, and a third party, known as the Liberty Party, was also in the field. Harrison was the hero of the battle of Tippecanoe, and was popularly called "Old Tippecanoe," and log cabins and jugs of hard cider, in reference to his humble mode of life, were used as the emblems of the campaign. In the end, Harrison was elected. Never before had greater activity been manifested by the leading political parties of the nation. The country had been convulsed with the strife for many months. The whole political press had exerted its utmost influences on the one side or the other, and that, in many instances, in the most unscrupulous manner. Considerations of great interest and importance were urged by the respective parties; much truth was uttered and widely disseminated, but more falsehood and detraction. Popular meetings—in numbers, character, and enthusiasm, never before assembled on the American soil for this or any other purpose—were held towards the conclusion of the political contest in every State, and in almost every county. The most distinguished men in the nation addressed thousands and tens of thousands, by night and by day. Said an eminent statesman, on one occasion, "If, on the occurrence of our Presidential elections in future, our contests must be so severe, so early begun, and so long continued, human nature will fail. The energies of man are not equal to the conflict."

CHAPTER XVII.

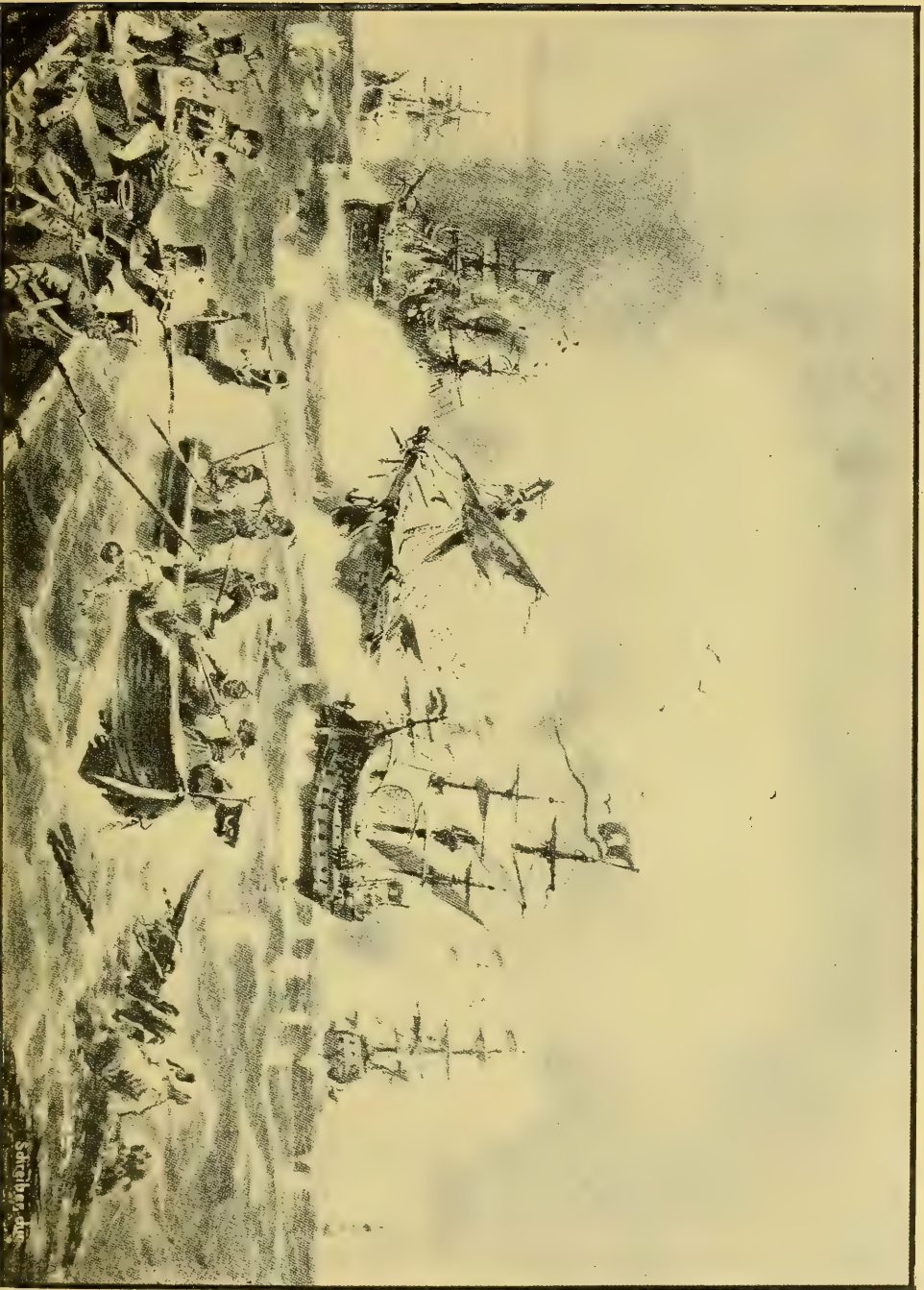
Accession of Queen Victoria—Insurrection in Canada—Suppression of the Insurgents—Indemnity in Canada—Outbreak in Acadie—Persian Invasion of Afghanistan—The Chartist Agitation—Attempt to Burn Sheffield—Marriage of Queen Victoria—The Opium War—Hostilities at Macao—Destruction of Chinese Fleet—Attempt to Assassinate Queen Victoria—Louis Napoleon at Boulogne—Remains of Bonaparte Brought Home—The British Princess-Royal—Turkish Affairs—Fall of Acre—Terms of Peace.

KING WILLIAM IV, of England, died on June 20, 1837, and intelligence of the fact having been officially communicated to his niece and successor, the Princess Victoria, and her mother, the Duchess of Kent, at Kensington Palace, preparations were immediately made for holding a Privy Council at eleven o'clock. A temporary throne was erected for the occasion, and on the Queen being seated the Lord Chancellor administered to Her Majesty the usual oath, that she would govern the kingdom according to the laws, customs, etc. The Cabinet Ministers and other Privy Councillors then present took the oath of allegiance and supremacy; and the Ministers having first resigned their seals of office, Her Majesty was graciously pleased to return them, and they severally kissed hands on their re-appointment.

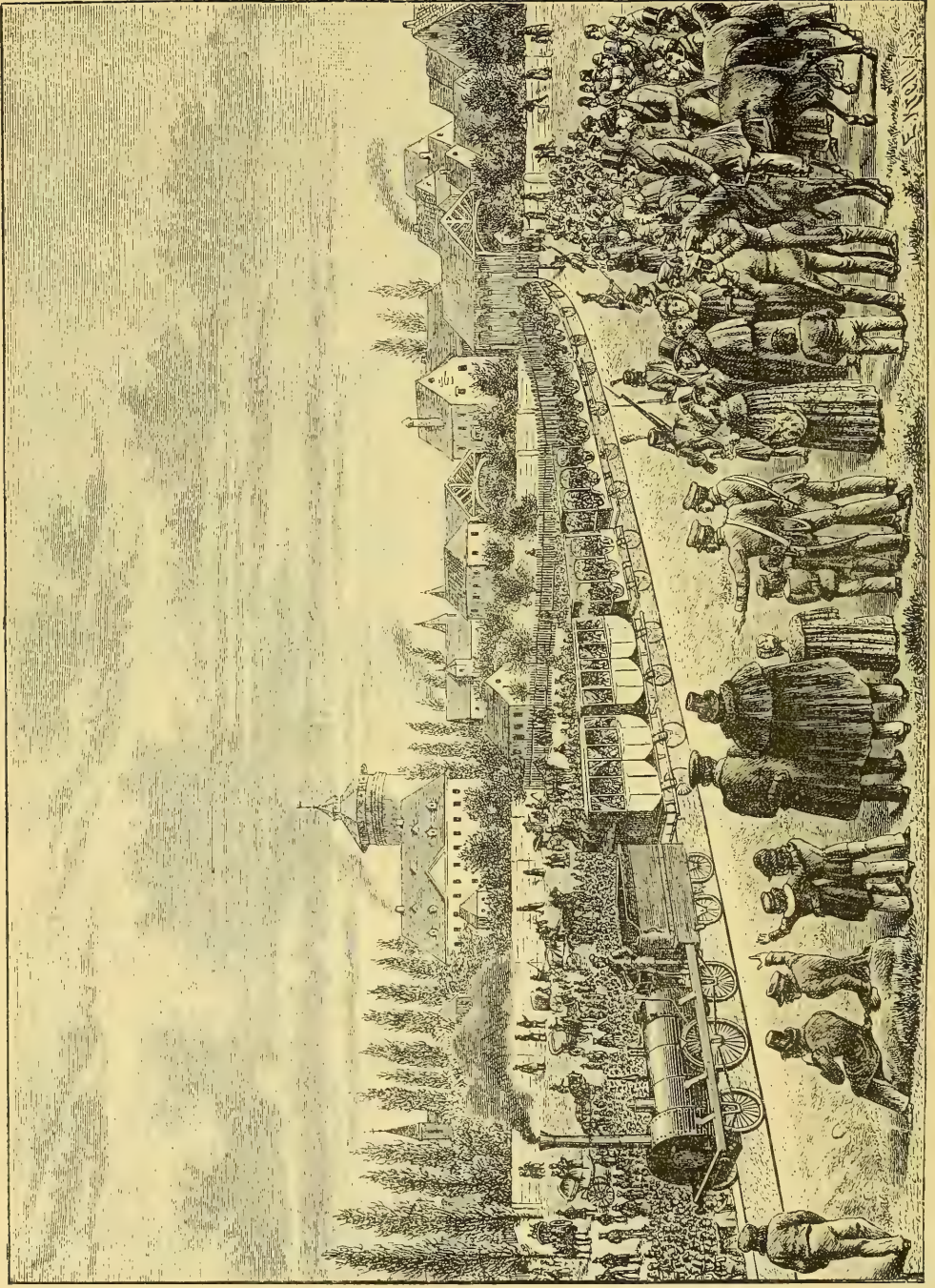
By the death of William IV the crowns of the United Kingdom and Hanover were dissevered through the operation of the Salic law excluding females from the Hanoverian throne, which consequently descended to the next heir, the Duke of Cumberland; and Adelaide, as Queen Dowager, was entitled to £100,000 per annum, settled upon her for life in 1831, with Marlborough house and Bushy house for residences.

INSURRECTION IN CANADA.

For some time there had been symptoms of discontent in Lower Canada, fomented by the old French party, which at length broke out



1827—NAVAL BATTLE OF NAVARINO



1828—FIRST STEAM RAILWAY IN THE UNITED STATES

into the appearance of a civil war. To check an evil so pregnant with mischief, it was deemed advisable that no ordinary person should be sent out to that important colony. Accordingly, it was notified that the Earl of Durham, G. C. B., was appointed Governor-General of "all Her Majesty's provinces within and adjacent to the Continent of North America, and Her Majesty's high commissioner for the adjustment of certain important affairs affecting the provinces of Lower and Upper Canada." His Lordship did not arrive in Canada till nearly the end of May, 1838. Actual contests had taken place between considerable parties of the insurgents and the troops under Lieutenant-Colonel Wetherall, who had succeeded in driving them from all the villages on the line of the Richelieu River. At length, on the 13th of December, Sir John Colborne himself marched from Montreal to attack the chief post of the rebels at the Grand Brule. On the following day an engagement took place in the church-yard of St. Eustache, when the Loyalist army proved once more victorious, 80 of the enemy having been killed and 120 taken prisoners. Dr. J. O. Chenier, their leader, was slain, and the town was more than half burned down. On the 15th, on Sir John Colborne's approach to the town of St. Benoit, a great portion of the inhabitants came out bearing a white flag and begging for mercy, but in consequence of the great disloyalty of the place, and the fact of the principal leaders having been permitted to escape, some of their houses were fired as an example. Dr. Wilfred Nelson, one of the rebel leaders, having been nine days concealed in the woods, was brought in prisoner to Montreal. In the Upper Province a body of rebels, which occupied a position about three miles from Toronto, threatening that city, were successfully attacked and dispersed on the 7th of December by Sir Francis Bond Head, at the head of the armed citizens, with such reinforcements as had spontaneously joined them from the country. The rebels had, however, established a camp on Navy Island, on the Niagara River, and many citizens of the United States were implicated in the insurrectionary movements there and elsewhere on the frontier.

SUPPRESSION OF THE INSURGENTS.

On the 3d of March, 1838, a sharp engagement took place between Her Majesty's troops and the insurgents, in which the latter were totally defeated at Point Pele Island, near the western boundary of the British

possessions. This island had been occupied by about 500 men, well armed and equipped; when Colonel Maitland, in order to dispossess them, marched from Amherstburgh with a few companies of the 32d and 83d regiments, two six-pounders and some volunteer cavalry. The action that followed assumed the character of bush-fighting—the island, which is about seven miles long, being covered with thicket, and the pirates outnumbered the troops in the proportion of nearly two to one. Ultimately, however, they were driven to flight, leaving among the dead, Colonel Bradley, the Commander-in-Chief; Major Howdley and Captain Van Rensselaer and McKeon, besides a great many wounded and other prisoners. The insurgents being thus foiled in their daring attempt, it is not necessary, for the present, for us to allude further to Canadian affairs than to observe that some of the most active ringleaders were executed, and others transported to the island of Bermuda.

INDEMNITY IN CANADA.

Lord Durham had been sent out with extraordinary powers to meet the exigency of affairs in Canada. It was now admitted that he had exceeded the scope of those powers by deciding on the guilt of accused men without trial, and by banishing and imprisoning them; but the British Ministers thought it their duty to acquiesce in passing a bill, which, while it recited the illegality of the ordinance issued by his lordship, should indemnify those who had advised or acted under it, on the score of their presumed good intentions. The ordinance set forth that “Wilfred Nelson, R. S. M. Bouchette and others, now in Montreal jail, having acknowledged their treasons and submitted themselves to the will and pleasure of Her Majesty, shall be transported to the island of Bermuda, not to return on pain of death; and the same penalty is to be incurred by Papineau, and others who have absconded, if found at large in the province.” Government had intended merely to substitute a temporary legislative power during the suspension of and in substitution for the ordinary legislature; and as the ordinary legislature would not have had power to pass such an ordinance, it was argued that neither could this power belong to the substituted authority.

The passing of the indemnity act made a great sensation as soon as it was known in Canada; and Lord Durham, acutely feeling that his implied condemnation was contained in it, declared his intention to resign

and return immediately to England, inasmuch as he was now deprived of the ability to do the good which he had hoped to accomplish.

OUTBREAK IN ACADIE.

Meanwhile the Canadas again became the scene of rebellious war and piratical invasion. The rebels occupied Beauharnois and Acadie, near the confluence of the Richelieu and the St. Lawrence, establishing their headquarters at Napierville; and their forces mustered, at one time, to the number 8000 men, generally well armed. Several actions took place; and Sir John Colborne, who had proclaimed martial law, concentrated his troops at Napierville and Chateauguay, and executed a severe vengeance upon the rebels whom he found there, burning the houses of the disaffected through the whole district of Acadie. But it was a part of the plan of the traitors and their republican confederates to distract the attention of the British commander and to divide the military force by invading Upper Canada; and at the moment Sir John Colborne was putting the last hand to the suppression of the rebellion in Beauharnois and Acadie, 800 republican pirates embarked in two schooners at Ogdensburgh, fully armed and provided with six or eight pieces of artillery, to attack the town of Prescott on the opposite side of the river. By the aid of two United States steamers they effected a landing a mile or two below the town, where they established themselves in a windmill and some stone buildings, and repelled the first attempt made to dislodge them, killing and wounding 45 of their assailants, among whom were five officers; but on Colonel Dundas arriving with a reinforcement of regular troops, with three pieces of artillery, they surrendered at discretion. Some other skirmishes subsequently took place, chiefly between American desperadoes, who invaded the British territory, and the Queen's troops; but the former were severely punished for their temerity. The conduct of Sir John Colborne elicited the praise of all parties at home; and he was appointed Governor-General of Canada, with all the powers which had been vested in the Earl of Durham.

PERSIAN INVASION OF AFGHANISTAN.

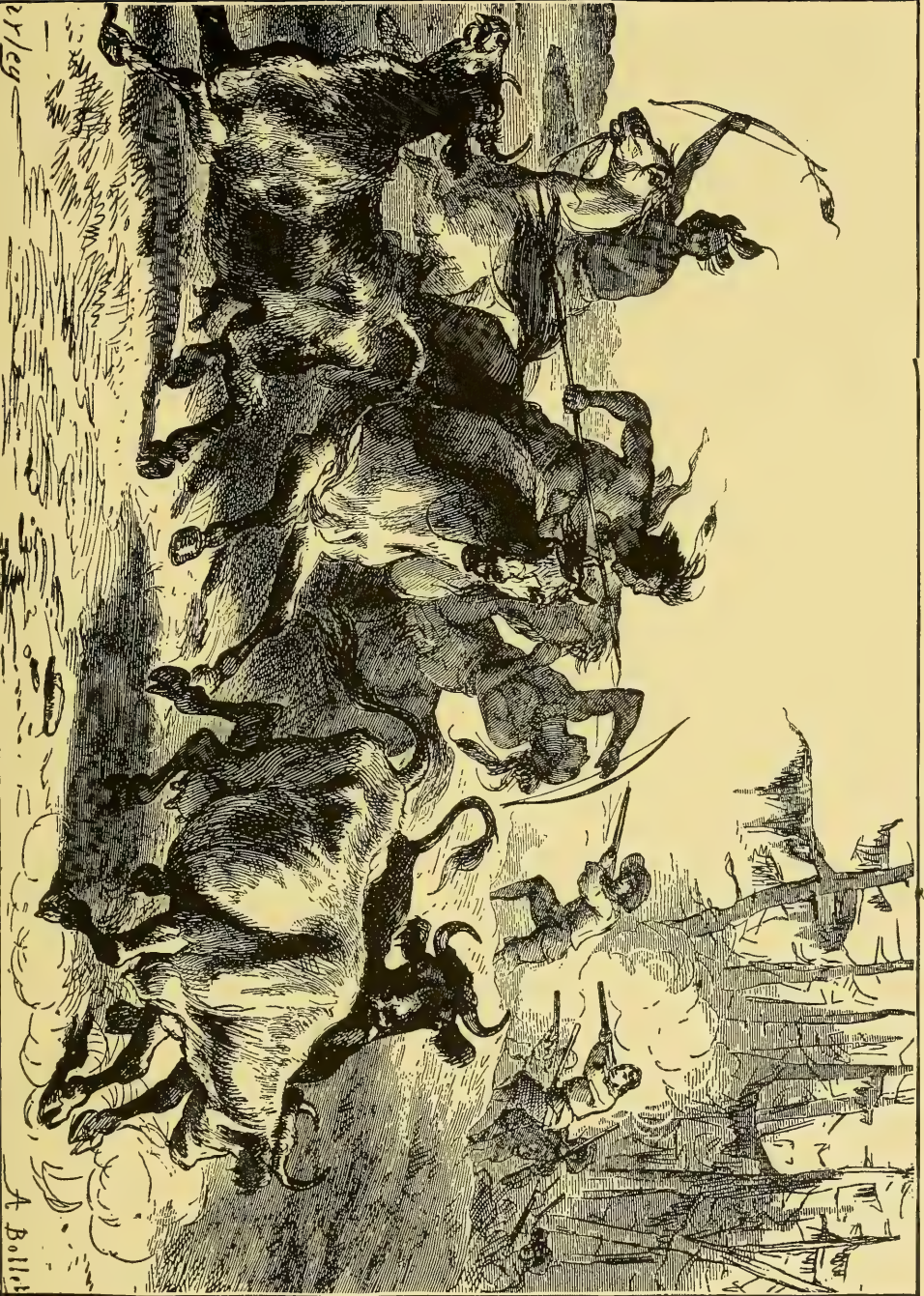
For a considerable time past the Government of India had been adopting very active measures, in consequence of the Shah of Persia, who was raised to the throne mainly by British assistance, being supposed

to be acting under Russian influence, to the prejudice of this country. Stimulated by Russia, as it appeared, the Persian undertook, in 1837, an expedition to Herat, an important place, to which a small principality was attached, in the territory of Afghanistan. Lord Auckland, the Governor-General of India, thereupon determined to send an army of 30,000 men toward Candahar, Cabul and Herat; and this force was to be joined by Runjeet Singh, the sovereign of the Punjaub. In the meantime it appeared that the Persians had suffered great loss at Herat. It was soon afterwards rumored that the Chiefs of Afghanistan were prepared to meet a much stronger force than the Anglo-Indian Government, though reinforced by Runjeet Singh, could bring into the field, and that they would listen to no terms of accommodation. The next accounts, however, announced that the British had entered Candahar; that the difficulties experienced with respect to provisions had vanished, and that the troops were received with open arms. Shah Soojah was crowned with acclamation, and the army proceeded forthwith to Cabul.

On the 21st of September the fort of Joudpore, in Rajpootana, surrendered to the British; and that of Kurnaul, in the Decan, on the 6th of October. The camp of the Rajah was attacked by General Willshire, which ended in the total rout of the enemy. A very great quantity of military stores were found in Kurnaul, and treasure amounting to nearly £1,000,000. In the camp an immense quantity of jewels were captured, besides £150,000 in specie. The Shah of Persia consented to acknowledge Shah Soojah as Ameer of Afghanistan; but Dost Mahomed, the deposed Prince, was still at large, and there was no doubt that a widely ramified conspiracy existed among the native chiefs to rise against the British on the first favorable opportunity.

THE CHARTIST AGITATION.

Great Britain was much disturbed during the years 1839-40 by large and tumultuous assemblages of the people, of a revolutionary character, under the name of Chartists; and many excesses were committed by them in the large manufacturing towns of Manchester, Bolton, Birmingham, Stockport, etc., that required the strong arm of the law to curb. This was alluded to in Her Majesty's speech at the close of the Session of Parliament, as the first attempts at insubordination, which happily had been checked by the fearless administration of the law.



1830—INDIANS PLUNDERING CATTLE IN SOUTH CAROLINA



1835—DANGERS OF FRONTIER LIFE

On the 10th of December, 1839, a special commission was held at Monmouth for the trial of the Chartist rebels at Newport, before Lord-Chief-Justice Tindal and the Judges Park and Williams ; the Chief-Justice opening the proceedings with a luminous and eloquent charge to the Grand Jury. Accordingly, on the 12th, true bills were returned against John Frost, Charles Waters, James Aust, William Jones, John Lovell, Zephaniah Williams, Jenkin Morgan, Solomon Britton, Edmond Edmonds, Richard Benfield, John Rees, David Jones and John Turner (otherwise Coles), for high treason. In order to comply with the forms customary in trials for high treason, the court was then adjourned to December 31st, when John Frost was put to the bar. The first day was occupied in challenging the jury ; the next day the Attorney-General addressed the court and jury on the part of the crown, and the prisoner's counsel objected to the calling of the witnesses in consequence of the list of them not having been given to the prisoner Frost, agreeably to the terms of the statute ; on the third day the evidence was entered into ; and on the eighth day, after the most patient attention of the court and jury, a verdict of guilty was recorded against Frost, with recommendation to mercy. The trials of Williams and Jones each occupied four days, with a like verdict and recommendation. Walters, Morgan, Rees, Benfield and Lovell pleaded guilty, and received sentence of death, the court intimating that they would be transported for life. Four were discharged, two forfeited their bail, and nine having pleaded guilty to charges of conspiracy and riot, were sentenced to terms of imprisonment not exceeding one year. Frost and the other ringleaders, on whom sentence of death had been passed, were finally transported for life.

ATTEMPT TO BURN SHEFFIELD.

The spirit of Chartism, though repressed, was not subdued. Sunday, January 12, 1840, had been fixed on for outbreak in various parts of the country ; but by the precautionary measures of government and the police their designs were frustrated. Information was afterwards received that the Chartists intended to fire the town of Sheffield. They began to assemble, but troops and constables being on the alert, they succeeded in taking the ringleaders, but not before several persons were wounded, three of whom were policemen. An immense quantity of fire-arms, ball-cartridges, iron bullets, hand-grenades, fire-balls, daggers, pikes and

swords were found, together with a quantity of crow-feet for disabling horses. The ringleaders were committed to York Castle, and at the ensuing assizes were tried, found guilty and sentenced to various terms of imprisonment—of one, two and three years. At the same time four of the Bradford Chartists were sentenced to three years' imprisonment, and three from Barnsley for the term of two years. At the same assizes Feargus O'Connor was convicted of having published in the "Northern Star" newspaper, of which he was the editor and proprietor, certain seditious libels; and the noted demagogue orators, Vincent and Edwards, who were at the time undergoing a former sentence in prison, were convicted at Monmouth of a conspiracy to effect great changes in the Government by illegal means, etc., and were severally sentenced to a further imprisonment to twelve and fourteen months. In various other places, also, London among the rest, Chartist conspirators were tried and punished for their misdeeds. Out of this agitation, however, sprang the Anti-Corn-Law League, of which we shall hear more.

MARRIAGE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

For the space of two years and a half the British sceptre had been swayed by a "virgin queen"; it was therefore by no means surprising that Her Majesty should at length consider that the cares of regal state might be rendered more supportable if shared by a consort. That such, indeed, had been the subject of her royal musings was soon made evident; for, on the 16th of January, she met her Parliament, and commenced her speech with the following plain and unaffected sentence: "My Lords and gentlemen:—Since you were last assembled I have declared my intention of allying myself in marriage with Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. I humbly implore that the divine blessing may prosper this union, and render it conducive to the interests of my people, as well as to my own domestic happiness."

On the 6th of the ensuing month, the bridegroom-elect, conducted by Viscount Torrington, and accompanied by the Duke his father, and his elder brother, arrived at Dover; and on the 10th "the marriage of the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty with the Field-Marshal His Royal Highness Francis Albert Augustus Charles Emanuel, Duke of Saxe, Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, K. G., was solemnized at the chapel-royal, St. James. The processions of the royal bride and bridegroom

were conducted in a style of splendor suitable to the occasion. The Duke of Sussex gave away his royal niece; and at that part of the service where the Archbishop of Canterbury reads the words, "I pronounce that they be man and wife together," the park and tower guns were fired. In the afternoon Her Majesty and the Prince proceeded to Windsor Castle; a banquet was given at St. James' Palace to the members of the household, which was honored by the presence of the Duchess of Kent, and the reigning Duke and hereditary Prince of Saxe-Coburg; and the day was universally kept as a holiday throughout the country; grand dinners were given by the cabinet ministers, and in the evening the splendid illumination of the metropolis gave additional eclat to the hymeneal rejoicings.

THE OPIUM WAR.

For many months past there had been an interruption to those relations of amity and commerce which for a long period had been maintained between England and China. It originated in the determination on the part of the Chinese Government to put an end to the importation of opium into the "Celestial Empire," and the opposition made to that decree by British merchants engaged in that traffic. Early in the year 1840 a large quantity of opium belonging to British merchants was given up on the requisition of Mr. Elliot, the Queen's representative at Canton, to be destroyed by the Chinese authorities. The quantity seized was 20,000 chests, supposed to be worth £2,000,000; and Mr. Elliot pledged the faith of the government he represented that the merchants should receive compensation.

The English Government was naturally desirous to keep on good terms with a country from whom so many commercial advantages had been derived; but the Chinese authorities daily grew more arrogant and unreasonable, and several outrages against the English were committed. At length, in an affray between some seamen of the "Volage" and the Chinese, one of the latter was killed; and on Captain Elliot having refused to deliver up the homicide to Commissioner Lin, the most severe and arbitrary measures were immediately taken to expel all the British inhabitants from Macao. This hostile conduct was quickly followed by an outbreak of a still more serious character. The "Black Joke," having on board one passenger, a Mr. Moss, and six Lascars, was obliged to anchor in the Lantaod passage, to wait for the tide. Here she was

surrounded by three mandarin boats, by whose crews she was boarded. Five of the Lascars were butchered and Mr. Ross was shockingly mutilated.

HOSTILITIES AT MACAO.

These proceedings gave rise to further measures of hostility. On the 4th of September, 1840, Captain Elliot came from Hong Kong to Macao in his cutter, in company with the schooner "Pearl," to obtain provisions for the fleet. The mandarins, however, on board the war-junks, opposed their embarkation, when Captain Elliot intimated that if in half an hour the provisions were not allowed to pass, he would open fire upon them. The half hour passed, and the gun was fired. Three war-junks then endeavored to put to sea, but were compelled by a well-directed fire of the cutter and the "Pearl" to seek shelter under the walls of Kowloon Fort. About 6 o'clock the "Volage" frigate hove in sight, and the boat of Captain Douglas, with twenty-four British seamen, attempted to board the junk, but without success. The boat's crew then opened a fire of musketry, by which a mandarin and four Chinese soldiers were killed and seven wounded. The result, however, was that the provisions were not obtained and the Chinese junks escaped; while, instead of any approach to a better understanding between the two countries, it was regarded rather as the commencement of a war, which, indeed, the next news from China confirmed.

DESTRUCTION OF CHINESE FLEET.

On the appearance of another British ship, the "Thomas Coutts," at Whampoa, Commissioner Lin renewed his demand for the surrender of the murderer of the Chinese, and issued an edict commanding all British ships to enter the port of Canton and sign the opium bond, or to depart from the coast immediately. In case of non-compliance with either of these conditions within three days, the commissioner declared he would destroy the entire British fleet. On the publication of this edict, Captain Elliot demanded an explanation from the Chinese admiral, Kawn, who at first pretended to enter into a negotiation, but immediately afterwards ordered out twenty-nine war-junks, evidently intending to surround the British ships. The attempt ended in five of the junks being sunk and another blown up, each with from 150 to 200 men on board, and on the rest making off, Captain Elliot ordered the firing to cease.

A decree was now issued by the Emperor prohibiting the importation of all British goods, and the trade with China was consequently at an end ; but the American ships arrived and departed as usual. In the meantime preparations on a large scale were making in India to collect and send a large force to China, so as to bring this important quarrel to an issue. Several men-of-war and corvettes from England and various stations were got ready, and the command given to Admiral Elliot to give the expedition all the co-operation possible.

ATTEMPT TO ASSASSINATE QUEEN VICTORIA.

A great sensation was caused in the public mind by an attempt to assassinate the Queen. On the 10th of June, as Her Majesty was starting for an evening drive, up Constitution Hill, in a low, open carriage accompanied by Prince Albert, a young man deliberately fired two pistols at her, but happily without effect. His name proved to be Edward Oxford, the son of a widow who formerly kept a coffee-shop in Southwark. He was about eighteen years of age, and had been lately employed as a pot-boy in Oxford street, but was out of place. He was instantly seized and sent to Newgate on a charge of high treason ; but it appeared on his trial that there were grounds for attributing the act to insanity, and as there was no proof that the pistols were loaded, the jury returned a verdict of " guilty, but that at the time he committed the act he was insane."

LOUIS NAPOLEON AT BOULOGNE.

It is some time since we had occasion to notice anything relative to French affairs ; but an event transpired in August, 1840, which we cannot well omit. On the 6th of that month Louis Napoleon, son of the late King of Holland, and male heir of the Bonaparte family, made an absurd attempt to effect a hostile descent upon the coast of France. He embarked from London in the " Edinburgh Castle " steamer, which he had hired from the Commercial Steam Navigation Company, as for a voyage of pleasure, accompanied by about fifty men, including General Montholon, Colonels Voisen, Laborde, Montauban and Parquin, and several other officers of inferior rank. They landed at a small port about two leagues from Boulogne, to which town they immediately marched, and arrived at the barracks at about 5 o'clock, just as the

soldiers of the Forty-second Regiment of the line were rising from their beds. At first the soldiers were a little staggered, as they understood a revolution had taken place in Paris, and they were summoned to join the imperial eagle. One of their officers, however, having hurried to the barracks, soon relieved the men from their perplexity, and they acknowledged his authority. Louis Napoleon drew a pistol and attempted to shoot the inopportune intruder, but the shot took effect upon a soldier, who died the same day. Finding themselves thus foiled, the Bonapartists took the Calais road to the Colonne de Napoleon, upon the top of which they placed their flag. The town authorities and national guard then went in pursuit of the Prince, who, being intercepted on the side of the column, made for the beach, with a view to embark and regain the packet in which he had arrived. He took possession of the lifeboat, but scarcely had his followers gotten into it when the national guard also arrived on the beach and discharged a volley on the boat, which immediately upset, and the whole company were seen struggling in the sea. In the meantime the steam-packet was already taken possession of by the lieutenant of the port. The Prince was then made prisoner, and about three hours after his attempt on Boulogne he and his followers were safely lodged in the castle. From Boulogne he was removed to the castle at Ham, and placed in the rooms once occupied by Prince Polignac. On being tried and found guilty, Louis Napoleon was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in a fortress; Count Montholon, twenty years' detention; Parquin and Lombard, the same period; others were sentenced to shorter periods; Aldenize was transported for life, and some were acquitted.

REMAINS OF BONAPARTE BROUGHT HOME.

This insane attempt to excite a revolution probably owed its origin to the "liberal" permission granted by Louise Philippe and the no less liberal acquiescence of the English ministers to allow the ashes of the Emperor Napoleon to be removed from St. Helena, that they might find their last resting place in France. This had undoubtedly raised the hopes of many a zealous Bonapartist, who thought that the fervor of the populace was likely to display itself in a violent emeute, which the troops would be more ready to favor than to quell. A grant of a million of francs had been made to defray the expenses of the expedi-

tion to St. Helena, which was to be under the command of Prince de Joinville, the funeral ceremony, and the erection of a tomb in the Church of the Invalides ; so that, in the language of the French Minister of the Interior, "his tomb, like his glory, should belong to his country." The Prince arrived at Cherbourg with his special charge on the 30th of November, and on the 15th of December Napoleon's remains were honored by a splendid funeral procession, the King and royal family being present at the ceremony, with 60,000 national guards in attendance and an attendance of 500,000 persons.

THE BRITISH PRINCESS-ROYAL.

Queen Victoria, on the 21st of November, 1840, gave birth, at Buckingham Palace, to a princess, her first-born child ; and on the 10th of February the infant princess-royal was christened Victoria Adelaide Mary Louise.

In 1838 the Spanish general and dictator, Espartero, conducted a successful campaign against the Carlists. In the following year, on August 31, he concluded the Treaty of Vergara with the Carlist leader, Maroto, and thus the Carlist war was, for the time being, ended.

The year 1839 also saw a settlement of the disputes between Holland and Belgium. By its terms Limburg and Luxemburg were divided between the two kingdoms.

TURKISH AFFAIRS.

The Turkish Sultan, Mahmoud II, in 1839, made war upon Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt. The Turkish forces, under Hafiz Pacha, were utterly routed by Ibrahim Pacha at Nizib on June 24th. Mahmoud died a week later and was succeeded by Abdul Mejid. A few days afterward the Turkish fleet was treacherously surrendered to the Egyptians. Chastened by defeat, Abdul Mejid, under the guidance of Reschid Pacha, began a general constitutional reform of the domestic affairs of the Empire, with the "Hatti Shereef," a reform proclamation, of Gulhane, on November 3d.

In 1840 an alliance was entered into between England, Russia, Austria and Prussia, to put an end to the dispute between the Sultan and Mehemet Ali. For this purpose it was deemed expedient to dispatch a fleet to the Mediterranean ; and on the 14th of August Commodore

Napier summoned the Egyptian authorities to evacuate Syria. In reply to this summons, Mehemet Ali declared that on the first appearance of hostility by the powers of Europe, the Pacha Ibrahim would be commanded to march on Constantinople. Soon afterwards hostilities commenced, and the town of Beyrout was bombarded on the 11th of September and completely destroyed by the allies in two hours. The war in Syria was now carried on with great activity. The troops of Ibrahim sustained a signal defeat early in October, with a loss of 7000 in killed, wounded and prisoners; in addition to which Commodore Napier, with a comparatively trifling number of marines and Turkish troops, succeeded in expelling the Egyptians from nearly the whole of Lebanon, captured about 5000 prisoners, with artillery and stores, and effected the disorganization of an army of 20,000 men. In short, more brilliant results with such limited means have rarely been known, particularly when it is considered under what novel circumstances they were accomplished. But the great exploit remains to be related.

FALL OF ACRE.

St. Jean d'Acre was taken by the allies on the 3d of November. Colonel Smith, who commanded the forces in Syria, directed Omar Bey, with 2000 Turks, to advance on Tyre, and occupy the passes to the northward of Acre. In the meantime Admiral Stopford sailed from Beyrout Roads, having on board 3000 Turks and detachments of English artillery and sappers. The forces and fleet arrived off Acre at the same time. At 2 o'clock in the afternoon a tremendous cannonade took place, which was maintained without intermission for some hours, the steamers, lying outside, throwing, with astonishing rapidity, their shells over the ships into the fortifications. During the bombardment the arsenal and magazine blew up, annihilating upwards of twelve hundred of the enemy, forming two entire regiments, who were drawn up on the ramparts. A sensation was felt on board the ships similar to that of an earthquake. Every living creature within an area of 60,000 square yards ceased to exist. At 2 o'clock on the following morning a boat arrived from Acre to announce that the remainder of the garrison were leaving the place, and as soon as the sun rose the British, Austrian and Turkish flags were seen waving on the citadel. The town was found to be one mass of ruins; the batteries and houses riddled all over; killed and wounded



1838—THOMAS SIMPSON DISCOVERING VICTORIA LAND



1838—COL. TAYLOR AT THE BATTLE OF OKEECHOBEE

lying about in all directions. The slain was estimated at 2500, and the prisoners amounted to upwards of 3000. The Turkish troops were landed to garrison Acre, where a vast quantity of military stores were found, besides an excellent park of artillery of 200 guns and a large sum in specie.

TERMS OF PEACE.

As the foregoing successes led to the termination of the war in Syria and its evacuation by Ibrahim Pacha, it is unnecessary to speak of operations of a minor character. Mehemet Ali eventually submitted to all the conditions offered by the Sultan, and which were sanctioned by the representatives of Austria, France, Great Britain, Prussia and Russia :

“ 1st. The hereditary possession of Egypt is confirmed to Mehemet Ali and his descendants in a direct line. 2d. Mehemet Ali will be allowed to nominate his own officers up to the rank of a colonel. The Viceroy can only confer the title of pacha with the consent of the Sultan. 3d. The annual contribution is fixed at 80,000 purses, or 40,000,000 piastres. 4th. The Viceroy will not be allowed to build a ship of war without the permission of the Sultan. 5. The laws and regulations of the Empire are to be observed in Egypt, with such changes as the peculiarity of the Egyptian people may render necessary, but which changes must receive the sanction of the Porte.”

Changes in European thrones were numerous in 1840. Frederick William IV of Prussia succeeded his father, Frederick William III. William I of Holland abdicated in favor of his son, William II. Maria Cristina of Spain left the country, and Espartero became for a time its real ruler.

The introduction of penny postage in England by Rowland Hill was one of the most noteworthy incidents of the year 1840.

Russia persisted in her Central Asian conquests, sending in 1839 an expedition under General Perovski against the Khan of Khiva. This expedition met, however, with complete disaster in the following year.

The death of the famous Sikh ruler, Runjeet Singh, “the Lion of the Punjaub,” made the year 1839 notable in Indian annals. In that year the British took possession of Aden, the stronghold at the lower end of the Red Sea, thus strengthening their control of the road to India.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Regular Steam Navigation of Atlantic Begun—The "Great Western"
—Regular Trips Begun—The "Great Britain"—A Fine Ship's
Bad Luck—Origin of the Cunard Line—Antarctic Ex-
plorations—Wilkes's Expedition—"Erebus" and "Terror"
—New Year's at Mount Sabine—Antarctic Vol-
canoes—The Icy Barrier—The Attempt
Abandoned—Origin of Photography—
Temperance Societies—Literary
Progress.

WHEN it was first proposed, about 1836, to cross the Atlantic by steam-power alone, the idea was deemed illusive. Some of the most distinguished scientific men in the world gave a verdict against it, and prophesied its failure in no unequivocal language. At the command of these philosophers all kinds of spectres rose up from the Atlantic Ocean to terrify the daring men who had determined to make the attempt. The action of the paddle-wheels on the water—the waves, and storms, and currents of the Atlantic—and the quantity of coal necessary to be used, were all made the subjects of nice calculations such as no person could dispute; and the theorem they all tended to prove was that the project was utterly impracticable. To men who made no pretense to be philosophers, the difficulties in the way were self-obvious. The distance to be traversed was at least 3000 miles of clear ocean, with no intervening land where a vessel might run for shelter or supplies. Mariners knew well that the Atlantic was not only frequently agitated by terrific storms, but that its currents ran across the track of any vessel sailing between England and America.

THE "GREAT WESTERN."

However, amid all this thinking and prophesying, amid the calculations of philosophers and the speculations of merchants, hundreds of

workmen were engaged at Bristol in constructing a large steamer, to be called the "Great Western," which should at once and forever set the question at rest. The men of practice did not share the doubts of the men of theory; capital was supplied to a sufficient extent, and the public looked on in anxious expectation of the result.

The "Great Western" sailed from Bristol on the 8th of April, 1838, having on board 660 tons of coal and seven adventurous passengers. Three days previously the "Sirius," a smaller vessel than the former, built to ply between London and Cork, had steamed from the latter port right in the teeth of a strong westerly wind, and with New York also for her destination. Never was there such a race as this struggle of two steamers, which should first traverse the entire breadth of the wild Atlantic. The very wind seemed to be angry with the ships. The "Sirius," that had the start by three days, made little way comparatively during the first week. She carried more weight in proportion than the "Great Western," but as her coals were consumed she became more lively, and, in sporting phrase, "made more running." Thus, during the first week she was out, her daily run was never more than 136 miles; on the second day it was only 89. The "Great Western," on the contrary, made 10 miles an hour during the second day, and her average daily speed during the entire voyage was 211 miles. At such a speed she would soon overtake the "Sirius," that had a start by about 400 miles only.

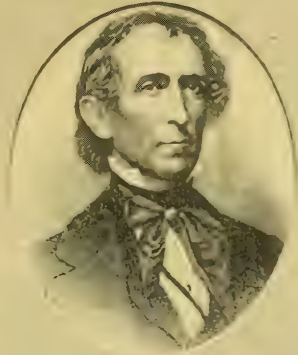
As the little vessel got lighter her swiftness increased; on the 14th she ran 218 miles, as much as the "Great Western" on the same day; on the 22d she ran only 3 miles less than the large ship, but the latter was then in the same parallel of latitude, and only about three degrees of longitude behind. Still it was a close chase; but at last the "Sirius," by reason of her long start, was the winner. She reached New York on the morning of the 23d, and the "Great Western" came in the same afternoon.

The excitement which prevailed in New York respecting these voyages was intense. Previous to the arrival of the steamers crowds had daily collected on the quay, gazing wistfully eastward over the wide Atlantic. Many of the watchers were old enough to remember the first voyage of Fulton's "Folly," little dreaming then what the future of that "Folly" was to be; and as they now describe that memorable voyage to

their younger brethren, they remember how the predictions of the wise had been falsified, and spoke in hope rather than in doubt of the success of the steamers from the Old World. And never were hopes so well realized as when, on the morning of the 23d of April, a streak of smoke, dim and undefined, was described in the horizon by the watchers on the quay. "Could it be a steamer?"—"Was it *the* steamer?"—passed from mouth to mouth. The smoke came nearer; the hull hove up, as it were, out of the ocean, and a steamer was clearly defined advancing rapidly. The intelligence spread; the city poured out its crowds; and cheer upon cheer arose as the "Sirius" steamed into the harbor and cast in the Hudson that anchor which, only eighteen days before, had been weighed at Cork. Scarcely had the good citizens time to recover from their first surprise when the "Great Western" appeared. Streaming with flags and crowded with people, the "Sirius" lay waiting the arrival of her competitor; and as the "Great Western" sailed round her, three hearty cheers were given and responded to. The battery fired a salute of twenty-six guns; and down came the flag of the "Great Western," while the passengers, amid the most enthusiastic cheering, drank the health of the President of the Great Republic. As the vessel proceeded to the quay "boats crowded round us," says the journal of one of the passengers, "in countless confusion; flags were flying, guns firing and bells ringing. The vast multitude set up a shout—a long enthusiastic cheer—echoed from point to point, and from boat to boat, till it seemed as though they never would have done."

REGULAR TRIPS BEGUN.

The "Great Western" continued to ply regularly and successfully. From 1838 to 1844 she made thirty-five outward and thirty-five homeward voyages—steaming altogether a quarter of a million of miles in all kinds of weather. The only accident that befell her during such service was "the loss of a bowsprit in coming up like a whale to blow after a rather deeper plunge than usual, with fair headway on her right course and against a head-wind and sea." The average distance steamed each voyage was nearly 3500 miles (one of the voyages was 4698 miles in length, but that was to New York via Madeira); the time occupied in going to New York was fifteen days twelve hours, and in returning, thirteen days nine hours. The shortest outward run was in May, 1843,



JOHN TYLER



ZACHARY TAYLOR



ABRAHAM LINCOLN



FRANKLIN PIERCE



JAMES BUCHANAN



JAMES K. POLK



MILLARD FILLMORE



1847—BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA—MEXICAN WAR

when the voyage was performed in twelve days eighteen hours, or not much more than a third of the average time taken by the old liners; and the shortest passage home was in April-May, 1842, in twelve days seven and a half hours. The average speed outwards was nine and a half, and homeward eleven and a quarter miles per hour. During these seventy voyages the "Great Western" carried 3165 passengers to New York and brought 2609 home.

THE "GREAT BRITAIN."

According to Captain Claxton, Managing Director of the Great Western Steamship Company, "no sooner had the 'Great Western' performed her voyage, with the greatest ease, to New York and back, than the directors found that steamships of larger dimensions would offer better chances of remuneration." "They now determined that their second ship should be built of iron instead of wood, and propelled by the screw instead of the paddle-wheel." Accordingly the keel of the "Great Britain" was laid at Bristol in 1839, and the vessel was launched in 1843—Prince Albert acting as sponsor on the occasion. The misfortunes of this ill-fated ship began at the cradle. Perhaps some reader may have heard of the keeper of the lighthouse whose better-half throve so well in that useful building that for years all exit through the narrow door was denied her; and after her worthy husband died his successor was obliged to take the stout widow "for better, for worse," as one of the fixtures of the establishment. The "Great Britain," at the outset of her career, was somewhat like the heavy lady in the lighthouse; the addition of her machinery brought her lines of greatest breath so low that the entrance of the dock or basin in which she lay would not permit her exit, and the greatest ingenuity of the greatest engineers was exerted for her release. She was freed at last, and proceeded to London, Dublin and Liverpool, to be inspected by the public previous to sailing for America.

A FINE SHIP'S BAD LUCK.

This vessel was, in every sense of the word, magnificent. Her total length was 322 feet, breadth 51, and depth 32. She could stow away 1200 tons of coal; the weight of the engines was 340, and of the boilers 200 tons. The engines were of 1000 horse-power; they gave motion to a drum 18 feet in diameter, which communicated by means of chains

weighing 7 tons, with another drum one-third of the diameter of the first. The latter drove a shaft 130 feet long, passing immediately above the keel to the screw, which had 6 arms placed in a circle—each arm about 7 feet long, and shaped somewhat like the bent tail of a salmon. The screw weighed 4 tons, and wrought in a space left immediately in front of the helm. The want of paddle-boxes, and the consequently clear run of the ship, gave her a very handsome appearance, and when seen in the graving dock at Liverpool from keelson to topmast, the admiration of her beautiful proportions increased as inspection became closer. The saloons and berths were elegantly fitted up, but not so expensively as those of the "Great Western." Her six masts (afterwards reduced to five) could spread as much canvas (5000 yards) as a fifty-two gun frigate; but as the masts were all low, instead of requiring a frigate's complement of seamen, the comparatively small number of thirty was sufficient to manage the sails of the "Great Britain." Even as a sailing vessel, it was expected that she would go through the water as fast as a frigate, and certainly much faster than any paddle steamer under sail only, as the screw would not impede the progress of the ship to anything like the extent of paddle-boxes and wheels. Her entire cost was about £100,000.

All England was proud of this ship; her sailing and steaming qualities had been tested with satisfactory results, and it was considered that she would for many years be the swiftest and safest Atlantic steamer. A few voyages in 1845-46 seemed to confirm this idea; but her successful career was suddenly stopped in a most unaccountable manner. Every one knows that if you sail from Liverpool to America you must go around either the south or the north of Ireland. The captain of the "Great Britain," on her last outward voyage, intended to go around by the north passage. On his way he must pass the Isle of Man, but through some blundering it was passed without being perceived, the Irish coast taken for it, and the poor "Great Britain" consequently went ashore.

ORIGIN OF THE CUNARD LINE.

But now we turn to a brighter page in the history of the bold adventurers on this Atlantic route. In November, 1838, shortly after the successful voyage of the "Great Western," the English Government advertised for tenders for carrying the mails in steamers between this country and America. Both the companies to which these two vessels belonged

made offers : the former to go once a month from Cork to Halifax for £45,000 ; and for £65,000 per annum if New York were included, the vessels to be of 240 horse-power. The Great Western Company proposed to perform the service to Halifax once a month, with three vessels of 350 horse-power each, for £45,000 per annum. Neither of these tenders was accepted ; but shortly afterwards a proposal was made to the English Government by Mr. Samuel Cunard, of Halifax, Nova Scotia. This gentleman had had for fifteen or twenty years previously a contract for carrying the mails between Halifax and Bermuda, for which he received £4460 per annum, his vessels running twice each month ; and he now proposed to take the Atlantic contract, and carry the mails once a week. This proposition was not acceded to at the time, but ultimately it was arranged that he was to receive £65,000 per annum for seven years for conveying the mails twice each month between Liverpool, Halifax, Quebec and Boston. This was the commencement of what is now the well-known Cunard Line. In the summer of 1840 a steamer named the "Britannia," of 1200 tons burthen, 440 horse-power, and 230 feet in length (the same dimensions nearly as the "Great Western"), arrived in the Mersey to commence the fulfilment of Mr. Cunard's contract. She left Liverpool on the 4th of July, arriving at Halifax in 12 days 10 hours, and performing the voyage homeward from Halifax in 10 days. The other vessels placed on this line at the outset were the "Arcadia," "Columbia," and "Caledonia." They were all built in the Clyde, and their dimensions were nearly the same as the "Britannia." More powerful vessels were afterwards constructed, and in consideration thereof the payment was raised to £90,000 per annum, subsequently reduced to £85,000 when the service to Quebec was taken off.

ANTARCTIC EXPLORATIONS.

In 1837 the French Government sent out an expedition under Rear-Admiral D'Urville, an eminent explorer, who had already made three voyages around the world. Two corvettes, the "Astrolabe" and "Zélée," sailed from Toulon, and by the end of the year had followed Weddell's track in the Antarctic seas until they were stopped by the ice between the 63d and 64th parallels. On three occasions an entrance was forced into it, but they were driven back each time and forced to return. Louis Philippe's Land, however, was discovered, and some posi

tions of the shores beyond Brandsfield Straits determined. After a lengthened cruise in Polynesia and the Indian Archipelago, D'Urville resolved to make another attempt to get to the south, and touched at Hobart Town in a distressed condition, having lost three officers and thirteen men by dysentery. He sailed in January, 1840, his special aim being to approach or reach the magnetic or terrestrial pole. The terrestrial meridian from Hobart Town to the pole coincides in a remarkable degree with the magnetic meridian, and by steering on the former, D'Urville hoped to arrive at both the poles he was searching for by the same route. On the 21st he was surrounded by numerous ice islands, and saw a lofty line of coast covered with snow, stretching from south-west to north-west, apparently without limit. With some difficulty a landing was effected, and possession taken in the name of France. It was called La Terre Adelie, after the wife of the discoverer. Two days afterwards the vessels were separated by a terrific storm; they, however, weathered through and met again on the 28th in an open sea toward the north, from whence they steered a south-westerly course to complete a series of magnetic observations, keeping a lookout for land in that direction. On this route a ship was seen, which afterwards proved to be the "Porpoise," one of the American squadron. The vessels passed without communicating, and in February, 1840, D'Urville returned to Hobart Town. The subsequent fate of this persevering navigator was truly melancholy. After having escaped all the dangers of a sailor's life during thirty years, he was burned to death, with his wife and son, in the railway train between Paris and Versailles in 1842.

WILKES'S EXPEDITION.

The United States Exploring Expedition, the first that ever left this country for a scientific purpose, sailed in August, 1838. It comprised two sloops of war, the "Vincennes" and the "Peacock," the brig "Porpoise," a store-ship, and two tenders. With respect to researches in the Antarctic seas, Lieutenant Wilkes, the commander, was instructed to follow, as others had previously done, Weddel's track, and afterwards to explore as far as Cook's *ne plus ultra*, neglecting no opportunity of pushing to the south as might be compatible with the safety of the vessels. The "Porpoise" and "Seagull," tender, sailed from Orange Harbor, on the west of Terra del Fuego, in February, 1839, for the first

southern cruise, and explored in the vicinity of the South Shetlands. The "Peacock" and "Flying Fish" followed, and penetrated as far as 70 degrees, when the approach of winter compelled their return. Off Cape Horn the "Seagull" separated from her consort, and was never afterwards heard of. The second cruise was made from Sydney with four of the ships; they sailed December 29th, two days before D'Urville. Lieutenant Wilkes chose the meridian of Macquarie Island, designing, after a long stretch to the south, to turn westward, and beat around the circle to Enderby Land, and make a dash towards the pole whenever practicable. On the 16th of January, in latitude 66 degrees, he landed on what was taken for an island, but which subsequent researches gave reason to suppose was a floating mass of ice. To make the exploration as effective as possible, the ships separated. They were, however, so ill-adapted for navigation among ice, that although great exertions were used to widen the search one after another they were compelled to abandon the enterprise, after having incurred extreme distress and danger. The "Vincennes" was the last to return. On the 30th of January, Lieutenant Wilkes entered a bay, which he named Pinar's Bay, in latitude 66° 45', and designated the country as the Antarctic Continent. The accumulations of floating ice prevented his reaching the shore, and he was then unaware that this was the Adelie Land of D'Urville. The French admiral had landed there a week previously, and taken possession. The American squadron returned to the United States in June, 1842.

" EREBUS " AND " TERROR."

Next came an important English expedition. Two vessels were fitted out, the "Erebus," of 350 tons, and the "Terror," the latter having been repaired after returning from Back's hazardous voyage towards Repulse Bay. Ross and Crozier were the commanders, with sixty-four persons in each ship. They left Chatham on the 16th of September, 1839, and on the 5th of October were off the Lizard, the last point of England they were to see for several years.

After touching at the Cape and landing a party with materials and instruments for the establishment of a magnetic observatory, as had previously been done at St. Helena, the ships proceeded to Kerguelen's Island, in approaching which they encountered the tempestuous weather so characteristic of high southerly latitudes. They remained here until

the 20th of July, pursuing diligently their magnetical, meteorological, geological, botanical, and other researches. Abundance of coal was found, a fact which in these days of ocean steam navigation may perhaps be turned to good account. The plants are much less numerous than in higher latitudes in the North. Parry met with sixty-seven species at Melville Island, and forty-five have been discovered at Spitzbergen, while Kerguelen Island produces but eighteen. Among these there is one which deserves especial mention—the Kerguelen cabbage, first noticed during Cook's stay on the island.

On November 12, 1840, the summer season of that side of the world, the vessels, having been fully refitted, were found to be more efficient than when they left England, and the party sailed in search of new lands in unknown seas.

NEW YEAR'S AT MOUNT SABINE.

The good cheer of New Year's day was not forgotten, and a suit of warm clothing was served out gratis to every one of the crew. On the 5th they beat into the main pack, and when fairly entered, found it lighter and more open than it appeared from the outside. Penguins, albatrosses, petrels and seals crowded about the vessels, and followed them in their winding course among the hummocks and floes. They got through the pack, which was here 200 miles wide, in four days, and on the 10th—one of those singular phenomena peculiar to the frozen latitudes—not a particle of ice could be seen in any direction from the masthead. The dip was 85 degrees, an amount which marked their proximity to the magnetic pole, to which the ships were now directly steered. But on the next morning, land, with lofty mountains, was seen ahead. One of these, 10,000 feet high, was named Mount Sabine, and later in the day the latitude was found to be $71^{\circ} 15'$, the highest point reached by Cook in 1774.

ANTARCTIC VOLCANOES.

Early on the 28th the vessels stood towards the high land seen the day before. It proved to be a mountain, 12,400 feet of elevation above the level of the sea, emitting flame and smoke in great profusion. At first the smoke appeared like snow-drift, but on drawing nearer its true character became manifest.

“The discovery of an active volcano in so high a southern latitude cannot but be esteemed a circumstance of high geological importance

and interest, and contribute to throw some further light on the physical construction of our globe. It was named Mount Erebus ; and an extinct volcano to the eastward, little inferior in height, being by measurement 10,900 feet high, was named Mount Terror."

THE ICY BARRIER.

Later in the same day the latitude was found to be $76^{\circ} 6'$, and the vessels were to the southward of the magnetic pole, the approach to which was impeded by land ice. Standing in for the land under all sail, "a low, white line was perceived extending from its eastern extreme point as far as the eye could discern to the eastward. It presented an extraordinary appearance, gradually increasing in height as we got nearer to it, and proving at length to be a perpendicular cliff of ice, between 150 and 200 feet above the level of the sea, perfectly flat and level at the top, and without any fissures or promontories on its even seaward face." Far in the rear a range of mountains was seen, which were named the Parry mountains, in honor of the eminent Arctic explorer. They are the most southerly land as yet known on the globe. The sight of this barrier was a great disappointment to all on board, for they had anticipated being able to push their researches far beyond the 80th degree ; but, as Sir J. Ross observes, they "might, with equal chance of success, try to sail through the cliffs of Dover as penetrate such a mass." They coasted along this icy wall to the eastward, and on the 2d of February had increased the latitude to $78^{\circ} 4'$, the highest point ever reached. On the 9th they stood closer in, to a bay, where the cliff being low, enabled them to look down upon it from the masthead. "It appeared to be quite smooth, and conveyed to the mind the idea of an immense plain of frosted silver ; gigantic icicles depended from every projecting point of its perpendicular face." Although in a season answering to the month of August in England, the temperature was not higher than 12 degrees, and did not rise above 14 degrees at noon ; and so much young ice was formed during the nights as to threaten a sudden stoppage to the exploration, which, however, was continued until the 13th, in hopes of coming to the end of the icy barrier, or to find some passage through it to the southward. But these expectations were not to be realized. After sailing along the frozen cliff for 450 miles the vessels bore up to the westward, to make another attempt to reach the magnetic pole before the

season finally closed. Unlike the bergs of the northern regions, which are dismembered by the action of the sea, "this extraordinary barrier, of probably more than 1000 feet in thickness, crushes the undulations of the waves and disregards their violence. It is a mighty and wonderful object, far beyond anything we could have thought or conceived."

THE ATTEMPT ABANDONED.

On the 17th it became apparent that the endeavor was useless; a secure harbor was then sought for, in which the vessels might winter, and from which parties could be sent overland in the spring to visit the burning mountain, whose frequent eruptions afforded a magnificent spectacle, and to discover the great centre of magnetic attraction. But after a hard struggle to reach an island through sixteen miles of intervening land ice, this attempt was also abandoned—not without much regret on the part of the commander, who had indulged in the hope of planting the British flag on the southern magnetic pole as he formerly had on the northern.

ORIGIN OF PHOTOGRAPHY.

The year 1839 must ever be memorable on account of the invention of photography. The first attempt to produce a picture by the aid of the rays of the sun was made in 1802 by Thomas Wedgwood, son of the famous potter. Sir Humphrey Davy co-labored with him. But their efforts were not successful. Niepce, of Chalons, in 1814, succeeded in making a permanent "heliograph," as it was called, by means of a process which now forms the basis of all photo-engraving. In 1829 he associated himself with Daguerre, but died in 1833 without achieving that at which he had aimed. Daguerre continued the experiments, and in 1839 brought to substantial perfection the process which has ever since been known by his name. The Daguerreotypes were pictures of rare beauty, but were costly, and in time gave way to later photographic processes.

The first photographic portrait of a human face was made by Daguerre's process by Professor John W. Draper, of the University of the city of New York, in 1839. It was made on the roof of the University building in New York, and was a portrait of his sister.

The calotype was perfected by Talbot, in England, in 1841, and was the first photographic process to make a "negative" from which any

number of prints can be made. The collodion, or "wet plate" process, came into use in 1851, and finally in 1871 the modern gelatine dry plate was perfected.

TEMPERANCE SOCIETIES.

It was during the administration of President Van Buren that the first temperance societies were formed in the United States. These were known as the Washington Temperance Societies. They favored entire abstinence from alcoholic liquors, and conducted a vigorous propaganda, largely by inducing converted or reformed drunkards to relate publicly their personal experiences.

LITERARY PROGRESS.

A noteworthy incident of the year 1837, in the literary world, was the appearance of Carlyle's "History of the French Revolution," a monumental work which at once stamped its author as one of the foremost historical writers and philosophers of the age, or, indeed, of any age.

In the same year occurred the death of Alexander S. Pushkin, whom Russians esteem to have been their greatest poet. Beside miscellaneous poems he wrote romantic epics, a drama, and several novels. For writing an "Ode to Liberty" he was dismissed from government service and banished to his country home by the Czar, Nicholas I. He was soon restored to favor, however, and was charged with writing for the Czar a history of Peter the Great. He was killed in a duel.

CHAPTER XIX.

William Henry Harrison becomes President of the United States—Death of Harrison—John Tyler becomes President—Ashburton Treaty—Dorr's Rebellion—Saving Oregon—Anti-Slavery Agitation—General Jackson's Fine—Annexation of Texas—Treaty with China—The Texas Question—Incidents of the Administration—End of Tyler's Term.

IN 1841 Mr. Van Buren was succeeded as President of the United States by William Henry Harrison, who had been somewhat distinguished in political life, but more for his military services. General Harrison was the candidate of the Whigs, and Mr. Van Buren of the Democrats ; and the electioneering contest was carried on with an excitement and enthusiasm never before witnessed in this country. Of the 294 electoral votes given for President, Harrison received 234, and John Tyler received the same number of votes for Vice-President. General Harrison was inaugurated on the 4th of March, and died on the 4th of April, just one month after his inauguration. He was the first President of the United States that died in office, and his death was greatly lamented.

DEATH OF HARRISON

It was difficult to conceive that the recent august spectacle of his introduction into the highest office in the gift of his countrymen should be so nearly associated with his funeral honors. The loss seemed severe, in proportion to the expectations that had been indulged. A suitable commemoration of the distressing event was observed throughout the United States by public bodies, and especially by Christian worshipping assemblies. Political opponents, in many instances, were not slow to render homage to the memory of the deceased President. There had been time for no particular development of principles or course of policy on the part of the administration. The Cabinet had been formed and things were proceeding prosperously, and the future was full of promises when this bereavement came to quench the hopes of millions

This brief notice of a brief administration may be closed by an extract from the circular issued by the members of the Cabinet immediately after the President's decease, and which alludes to his dying as well as his living example: "The people of the United States, overwhelmed, like ourselves, by an event so unexpected and so melancholy, will derive consolation from knowing that his death was calm and resigned, as his life had been patriotic, useful and distinguished; and that the last utterance of his lips expressed a firm desire for the perpetuity of the Constitution and the preservation of its true principles. In death, as in life, the happiness of his country was uppermost in his thoughts."

JOHN TYLER BECOMES PRESIDENT.

On the death of President Harrison, John Tyler, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, became President. But he refused to carry out the principles of the party by which he was elected, nor did he become popular with any party.

On the 31st of May Congress met in an extra session, which had been called by President Harrison, and, besides other acts, they repealed the Sub-Treasury Bill and passed two different bills, establishing a fiscal bank, or fiscal corporation, of the United States, both of which were vetoed by the President. The establishment of such an institution was a favorite measure of the Whigs, and the action of the President, in relation to it, caused much excitement; and all the members of the Cabinet resigned, with the exception of the Secretary of State, Mr. Webster, who fortunately retained office till after the settlement of the difficulty with England in relation to the north-eastern boundary.

In 1842 a new tariff law was enacted, which made provision for the public revenue and afforded protection to American manufacturers and other branches of national industry, and which was a favorite measure of the Whig party. This measure, as it was maintained by its friends, had a powerful influence in restoring a high state of prosperity to the country; but it caused great dissatisfaction in some parts, especially in the Southern States.

ASHBURTON TREATY.

The north-eastern boundary of the United States, between the State of Maine and the British Provinces of Lower Canada and New Brunswick, had been for some years a subject of negotiation and controversy,

and at length it threatened to become a subject of serious national dispute. The difficulty, however, was amicably adjusted by the treaty of Washington, concluded in September, 1842, by Lord Ashburton and Daniel Webster.

One of the last acts of Mr. Tyler's administration was the annexation of the Republic of Texas to the United States—a measure which was greatly promoted by the exertions of John C. Calhoun, the Secretary of State, and which excited a spirited controversy. Joint resolutions for the annexation of that republic to the United States, as one of the States of the Union, passed the House of Representatives on the 25th of January, 1845, by a vote of one hundred and twenty to ninety-eight; and the Senate, on the 1st of March, by a vote of twenty-seven to twenty-five; and on the same day they were approved by the President.

DORR'S REBELLION.

The administration of Mr. Tyler was marked with a curious attempt at civil war in New England, known as Dorr's Rebellion. It occurred in Rhode Island. The old charter of 1662 was still in force in that State, and the right of suffrage was restricted to a small proportion of the people.

A new Constitution was adopted in 1841 by a general popular convention, and under it a new Governor, Mr. Dorr, was elected. The old government of the State refused to recognize the legality of the new Constitution or Governor Dorr's title to his office. Accordingly a new Constitution, adopted by more regular methods, was framed in 1843. In the meantime Governor Dorr seized the State arsenal and attempted to maintain himself in office by force. He was finally seized and convicted of treason, but was pardoned.

A similar trouble arose in New York State through the refusal of some tenants of the old Dutch patroon estates to pay their legal rent. This rent was really no hardship. It amounted to nothing more than the payment of one day's work in a year, and perhaps a barrel of flour and three or four fowls. It was, however, a clear relic of the feudal customs of the dark ages in Europe, and was accordingly unpopular in this democratic country. There were some riots and other breaches of the peace, but these came to an end in 1846 with the abolition of the rent system.

SAVING OREGON.

The ownership of the country bordering on the Pacific Ocean between California, which belonged to Mexico, and Alaska, which belonged to Russia, became a source of controversy between the United States and Great Britain. Both laid claim to it, and since 1818 it had been regarded as a sort of neutral ground, under the joint control of both. By the year 1842, however, it began to be regarded by each with special interest. Many settlers from the United States went together and founded a pleasant and fertile country. Both governments soon began to claim the whole of it, and Great Britain would probably have succeeded in securing possession of it had it not been for the enterprise of a missionary from the United States, the Rev. Dr. Whitman, who, amid great perils and with great labor, crossed the continent and laid before the United States government the urgency of the situation. The result was prompt action and earnest enforcement of the American claim. At first the United States claimed the entire Territory up to the parallel of $54^{\circ} 40''$ north latitude, the southern boundary of Alaska. A popular political war-cry of the day was "fifty-four forty or fight."

ANTI-SLAVERY AGITATION.

The slavery controversy, of which mention has already been made, steadily became more and more acute. Arkansas was admitted as a slave State in 1836, and in 1837 Michigan was taken in as a free State to counterbalance it. There was thus no more Territory left in the South for the creation of additional slave States, while north of the line established by the Missouri Compromise there was room for a dozen more free States. Thus the fear arose in the South that the preponderance of power would soon be with the free States of the North. This fear was intensified by the rise of a definite anti-slavery movement in New England and elsewhere in the North; the famous Anti-slavery Society was organized. The leader of the abolitionists was William Lloyd Garrison, a printer and editor. Associated with him were Wendell Phillips and Theodore Parker, two of the most powerful orators of the day. In Congress itself the controversy was vigorously carried on by ex-President John Quincy Adams, by Joshua Giddings, of Ohio, and others, and every year made it more evident that there was an "impending conflict" upon this subject.

GENERAL JACKSON'S FINE.

On January 8, 1844, an act passed Congress refunding a fine which had been imposed upon General Jackson at the time of the attack upon New Orleans in the late war with England. The re-payment of this fine had been recommended by the President as early as 1842, but the measure had been till now strongly and successfully resisted. It had been imposed on the General by Judge Hall for his refusal, while commanding the army at New Orleans, to obey a summons to appear before the Court and answer for his disobedience of a writ of habeas corpus. The fine was \$1000. The amount now refunded—fine and interest—was \$2700; but the act disclaimed any reflection upon Judge Hall.

ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.

In April Congress was informed by a special message from the President that a treaty had been negotiated with Texas, by which she was annexed as a Territory to the United States. This annunciation excited no small surprise throughout the country, and awakened great solicitude in the minds of those who were opposed to the measure; as, in their view, it involved an extension of slavery and a probable rupture with Mexico, which power laid claim to the republic as a part of her rightful domain. The treaty, however, was rejected by the Senate, and the object of the President for the present failed.

TREATY WITH CHINA.

During the second session of the Twenty-eighth Congress, an important treaty between the United States and the Chinese Empire was ratified by an unanimous vote of the Senate. This treaty was concluded by Caleb Cushing and Tsiyeng on the 3d of July, 1844, and by it our relations with China were placed on a new footing, eminently favorable to the commerce and other interests of the United States.

THE TEXAS QUESTION.

The rejection of the treaty with Texas by the Senate, instead of cooling, increased the ardor of President Tyler to accomplish his plan of annexation. According to his wishes, and probably at his suggestion, at the following session of Congress a joint resolution for her annexation was introduced into Congress, and passed the House of Representatives,

January 23d, by a vote of one hundred and eighteen to one hundred and one. In the Senate the resolution underwent several important amendments, particularly one by Mr. Walker, involving the alternative of negotiation at the option of the President, which, having been concurred in by the House, received the sanction of the executive, and thus the way was prepared for the annexation of the country in question.

"As these measures, in regard to the admission of Texas, were adopted at the close of the session of Congress, it was expected that Mr. Tyler would leave it to his successor to consummate the wishes of Congress, and it was also understood that Mr. Polk had determined to negotiate a treaty with Texas under the alternative offered by Mr. Walker's amendment. President Tyler, however, determined to forestall the action of his successor, and hence dispatched an express to communicate to Texas that he had decided to invite Texas into the Union under the provisions of the resolutions as they passed the House of Representatives, without the exercise of further treaty-making power."

INCIDENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

We may note briefly, in passing, that during Mr. Tyler's administration the "gag rule" against the right of petition in Congress was rescinded, the Seminole wars were finally ended, the national election day for Presidential electors was fixed on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November of each fourth year, and Florida was admitted to the Union as a State.

END OF TYLER'S TERM.

Mr. Tyler's Presidential term expired on the 4th of March, 1845, and he was not elected, nor indeed was he a candidate for re-election, except for a short period. The candidates of the two great political parties were Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and James K. Polk, of Tennessee. These had been nominated by the respective conventions of the parties, which had assembled in the city of Baltimore; one on the 1st and the other on the 17th of May, 1844. The campaign was a spirited one, and the friends of the rival candidates used every effort to secure their election. On the votes being counted, in the presence of both Houses of Congress, February 12th, it was officially declared that Mr. Polk was elected.

CHAPTER XX.

Mehemet Ali Ruler of Egypt—Disasters in Afghanistan—Hastening to the Rescue—Fall of Ghuznee—Capture of Cabul—Release of Captives—Conquest of Scinde—The Bogue Forts—Fall of Canton—Capture of Amoy—Capture of Shanghai—Treaty Signed at Nankin—Annexation of Natal—O'Connell's Agitation—British Interests—Two Revolutions.

IN a preceding chapter we have told of the ambitious enterprises of Mehemet Ali and his son Ibrahim, which were checked by European intervention in Syria. Mehemet was, however, confirmed in his sovereignty over Egypt, and he devoted himself thereafter to the extension of his power and dominions in that part of the world. In the same year, 1841, Louis Philippe, sought to strengthen his hold upon the French throne by beginning the construction of that vast circle of fortifications around the city of Paris, which became one of the wonders of the world. Thus he gave employment to thousands who otherwise might have been idle and discontented, and he made a strong appeal to the military spirit which was still so potent in the French nation.

DISASTERS IN AFGHANISTAN.

The year 1841 came to a close with British disasters in Afghanistan. In consequence of reductions having been made in the tribute paid to the eastern Ghilzai tribes for keeping open the passes between Cabul and Jellalabad, in Afghanistan, the people rose and took possession of these passes. General Sir R. Sale's brigade was, therefore, directed to re-open communication. The brigade fought its way to Gundamuck, greatly harassed by the enemy from the high ground, and after eighteen days' incessant fighting, reached that place, much exhausted; they then moved upon Jellalabad. Meantime an insurrection broke out at Cabul. Sir A. Burnes and his brother, Lieutenant C. Burnes, Lieutenant Broadfoot and Lieutenant Stuart, were massacred. The whole city then rose up in



1847—GENERAL SCOTT AT CONTRERAS, MEXICO



1847—GENERAL SCOTT ENTERING THE CITY OF MEXICO

arms and universal plunder ensued, while another large party attacked the British cantonments about two miles from the town. These outrages, unfortunately, were but the prelude to others far more frightful. Akhbar Khan, the son of Dost Mahommed, on pretence of making arrangements with Sir W. M'Naughten, the British Envoy at the Court of Shah Soojah, invited him to a conference ; he went accompanied by four officers and a small escort, when the treacherous Afghan, after abusing the British Ambassador, drew a pistol and shot him dead on the spot. Captain Trevor, of the 3d Bengal Cavalry, on rushing to his assistance, was cut down ; three other officers were made prisoners, and the mutilated body of the Ambassador was then barbarously paraded through the town. It was also stated that some severe fighting had taken place, but under the greatest disadvantage to the British and native troops, and that the army in Cabul had been almost literally annihilated. A capitulation was then entered into, by which the remainder of the Anglo-Indian army retired from the town, leaving all the sick, wounded, and sixteen ladies, wives of officers, behind. They had not, however, proceeded far before they were assailed from the mountains by an immense force, when the native troops, having fought three days and wading through deep snow, gave way, and nearly the whole were massacred.

HASTENING TO THE RESCUE.

So terrible a disaster had never visited the British arms since India first acknowledged the supremacy of England. A fatal mistake had been committed by the former Government, and it was feared that all the energy of the new Ministry would be insufficient to maintain that degree of influence over the vast and thickly peopled provinces of India, which was necessary to ensure the safety of British possessions. The Governor-General, Lord Auckland, was recalled, and his place supplied by Lord Ellenborough, whose reputation for a correct knowledge of Indian affairs was undisputed. His lordship arrived at Calcutta on February 28th, at which time Sir Robert Sale was safe at Jellalabad ; but he was most critically situated. The garrison, however maintained their post with great gallantry, and were able to defy the utmost efforts of the Afghans, having in one instance sallied forth and attacked their camp of 6000 men, and gained a signal victory. At length General Pollock effected a junction with the troops of Sir R. Sale, and released them from a siege of one

hundred and fifty-four days' duration ; having previously forced, with very little loss, the dreaded pass of the Khyber, twenty-eight miles in length. General Nott, also, who advanced from Candahar to meet General England, who had sustained considerable loss at the pass of Kojuck, encountered a large force of Afghans, and completely defeated them. But, on the other hand, Colonel Palmer surrendered the celebrated fortress of Ghuznee on condition that the garrison should be safely conducted to Cabul.

FALL OF GHUZNEE.

The day of retribution was at hand. General Nott, at the head of 7000 men, having left Candahar on the 10th of August, proceeded towards Ghuznee and Cabul, while General England, with the remainder of the troops lately stationed at Candahar, marched back in safety to Quetta. On the 30th of August Shah Shoodeen, the Governor of Ghuznee, with nearly the whole of his army, amounting to not less than 12,000 men, arrived in the neighborhood of the British camp, and General Nott prepared to meet him with one-half of his force. The enemy came boldly forward, each division cheering as they came into position, and occupying their ground in excellent style ; but after a short and spirited contest they were completely defeated, and dispersed in every direction, their guns, tents, ammunition, etc., falling into the hands of the English. On the 5th of September General Nott invested the city of Ghuznee, which was strongly garrisoned, while the hills to the north-eastward swarmed with soldiery ; but they soon abandoned the place, and the British flags were hoisted in triumph on the Bala Hissar. The citadel of Ghuznee and other formidable works and defences were razed to the ground.

CAPTURE OF CABUL.

Early in September General Pollock marched from Gundamuck on his way to Cabul. On reaching the hills which commanded the road through the pass of Jugdulluck the enemy was found strongly posted and in considerable numbers. In this action most of the influential Afghan Chiefs were engaged, and their troops manfully maintained their position ; but at length the heights were stormed, and, after much arduous exertion, they were dislodged and dispersed. General Pollock proceeded onwards, and does not appear to have encountered any further opposition until his arrival, September 13th, in the Tehzear Valley, where an army

of 16,000 men, commanded by Akhbar Khan in person, was assembled to meet him. A desperate fight ensued; the enemy was completely defeated and driven from the field. On the day following this engagement the General advanced to Boodkhak, and on the 16th he made his triumphal entry into the citadel, and planted the British colors on its walls. "Thus," said Lord Ellenborough, in his general orders, "have all past disasters been retrieved and avenged on every scene on which they were sustained, and repeated victories in the field, and the capture of the citadels of Ghuznee and Cabul have advanced the glory and established the accustomed superiority of the British arms."

RELEASE OF CAPTIVES.

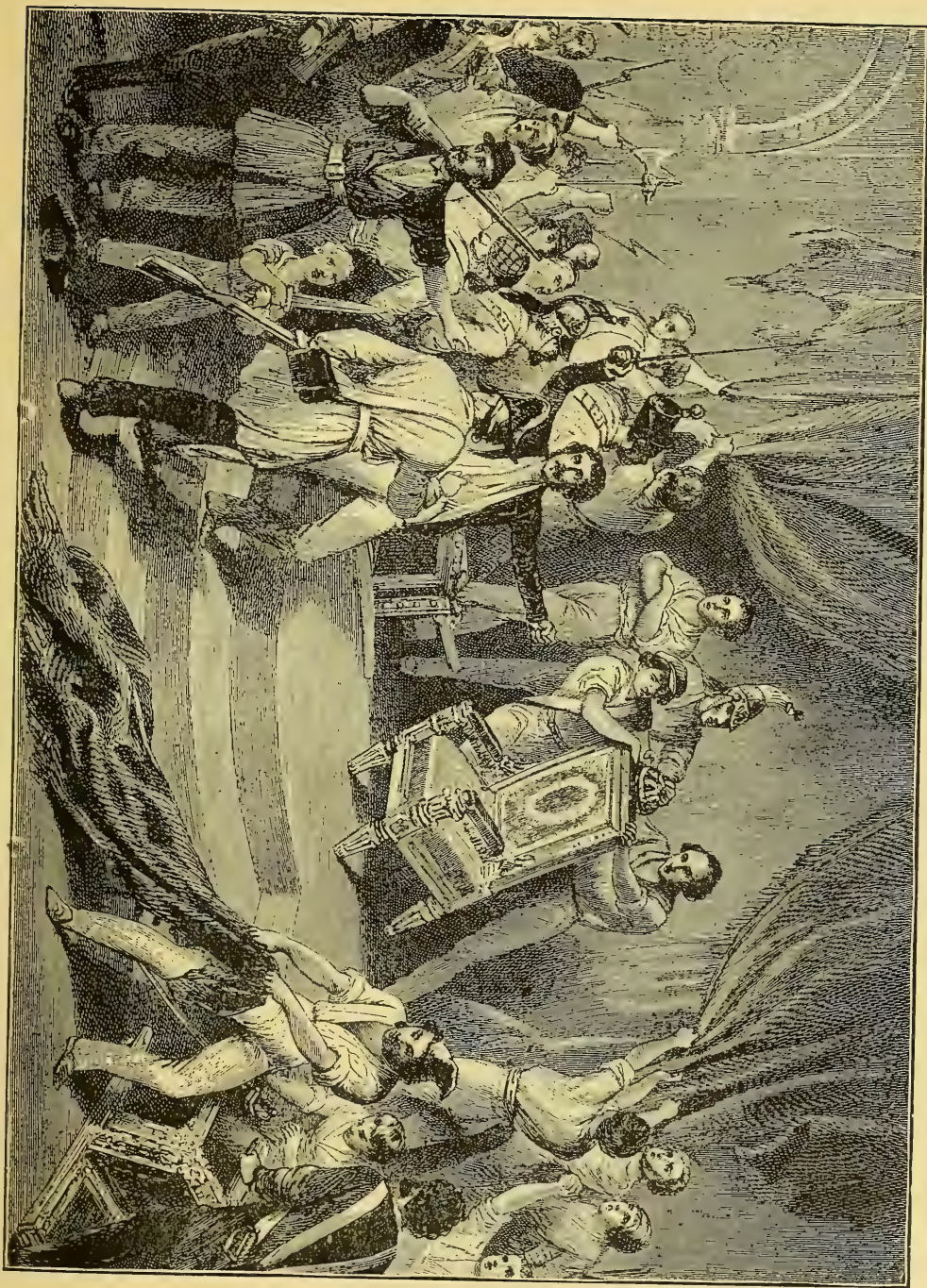
At length the long and anxiously desired liberation of the whole of the British prisoners in the hands of the Afghans was effected. Their number was 31 officers, 9 ladies and 12 children, with 51 European soldiers, 2 clerks and 4 women, making in all 109 persons, who had suffered captivity from January 10th to September 27th. It appeared that, by direction of Akhbar Khan, the prisoners had been taken to Bamecan, 90 miles to the westward, and that they were destined to be distributed among the Toorkistan chiefs. General Pollock and some other officers proposed to the Afghan chief that if he would send them back to Cabul they would give him £2000 at once, and £1200 a year for life. The chief complied, and on the second day they were met by Sir Richard Shakspear, with 610 Kuzzilbashes, and shortly afterwards by General Sale, with 2000 cavalry and infantry, when they returned to Cabul. Besides the Europeans, there were 327 Sepoys found at Ghuznee, and 1200 sick and wounded who were begging about Cabul. On the arrival of General Nott's division, the resolution adopted by the British Government to destroy all the Afghan strongholds was carried into execution, though not without resistance, particularly at the town and fort of Istaliff, where a strong body of Afghans, led on by Ameer Oola, and sixteen of their most determined chiefs, had posted themselves. This town consisted of masses of houses built on the slope of a mountain, in the rear of which were lofty eminences, shutting in a defile to Toorkistan. The number of its inhabitants exceeded 15,000, who, from their defences and difficulties of approach, considered their position unassailable. The greater part of the plunder seized from the British

was placed there ; the chiefs kept their wives and families in it, and many of those who had escaped from Cabul had sought refuge there. Its capture, was a work of no very great difficulty, the British troops driving the enemy before them with considerable slaughter. The Anglo-Indian troops soon afterwards commenced their homeward march in three divisions: the first under General Pollock, the second under General McCaskill, and the third under General Nott. The first division effected their march through the passes without loss, but the second was less successful, the mountaineers attacking it near Ali-Musjid, and plundering it as part of the baggage. General Nott with his division arrived in safety, bearing with them the celebrated gates of Somnauth, which it is said a Mohammedan conqueror had taken away from an Indian temple, and which for eight centuries formed the chief ornament of his tomb at Ghuznee.

CONQUEST OF SCINDE.

When the expedition to Afghanistan was first undertaken, it was intended to open the Indus for the transit of British merchandise and render it one of the great highways to Asia. The object was not lost sight of, though Afghanistan had been abandoned, and endeavors were made to obtain from the Ameers of Scinde such a treaty as would secure the safe navigation of that river. In December Major Outram was dispatched to Hyderabad to conclude the best terms in his power with the native chiefs. Not being in a condition immediately to refuse to give up for the use of navigation certain strips of land lying along the river, they temporized until at length their troops were collected, when, on the 14th of February, they sent word to Major Outram to retire from their city. The Major, not supposing they would proceed to extremities, delayed. The next day the residence of the British political agent was attacked. It was gallantly defended by 100 men for several hours ; but, at length, their ammunition having been expended, the British soldiers retired, with a small loss, to the steamers, and proceeded to join Sir C. J. Napier, then at the head of about 2700 men, at a distance of about twenty miles from the capital of the Ameers. The latter hastened, at the head of 22,000 men, to attack the British force. On the 17th a battle took place in which, after a severe struggle of three hours, the Ameers were totally routed, although they outnumbered the British force by seven to one. The Ameers on the following day surrendered themselves prisoners of

1848—FRENCH REVOLUTION—POPULACE DESTROYING THE THRONE



1849.

1850.



1851.

1852.



1853

1854



1855

1856.



war, and Hyderabad was occupied by the conquerors. Treasure and jewels were found to an amount considerably exceeding £1,000,000. In consequence of this success, the territories of Scinde, with the exception of that portion belonging to Meer Ali, the Morad of Khyrpore, was then declared by the Governor-General to be a British province, and Sir Charles J. Napier was appointed governor.

The new governor, however, was not to remain in undisturbed possession for any length of time. An army of Beloochees, 20,000 strong, under the command of Meer Shere Mahmoud, had taken up a strong position on the river Fullalie, near the spot where the Ameers of Scinde were so signally defeated, and Sir C. J. Napier, on ascertaining the fact, resolved to attack them forthwith. On the 24th of March he moved from Hyderabad at the head of 5000 men. The battle lasted for three hours, when victory was declared for the British. Eleven guns and nineteen standards were taken, and about 1000 of the enemy was killed and 4000 wounded, the loss of the British amounting to only 30 killed and 231 wounded. By this victory the fate of Scinde and Beloochistan was sealed, and the whole territory finally annexed to the Anglo-Indian Empire.

THE BOGUE FORTS.

At the commencement of 1841 news was brought from China that the differences which had existed were in a fair way of settlement, and that the war might be considered as at an end. Hostilities had, however, recommenced in consequence of Keshen, the Imperial Commissioner, having delayed to bring to a conclusion the negotiations entered into with Captain Elliot. Preparations were accordingly made for attacking the outposts of the Bogue forts on the Bocca Tigris. Having obtained possession the steamers were sent to destroy the war-junks in Anson's Bay; but the shallowness of the water admitted only the approach of the "Nemesis," towing ten or twelve boats. The junks endeavored to escape, but a rocket blew up the powder magazine of one of them, and eighteen more, which were set on fire by the English boats' crews, also successively blew up. At length a flag of truce was dispatched by the Chinese commander, and hostilities ceased. On the 20th of January Captain Elliot announced to Her Majesty's subjects in China that the following arrangements had been made: 1. The cession of the island and harbor of Hong Kong to the British Crown. 2. An indemnity to the

British Government of \$6,000,000 ; \$1,000,000 payable at once, and the remainder in equal annual installments, ending in 1846. 3. Direct official intercourse between the two countries upon an equal footing. 4. The trade of the port of Canton to be opened within ten days after the Chinese New Year.

Thus far all appeared as it should be ; but great doubts of the sincerity of Keshen, the Chinese Commissioner, were felt both in England and at Canton. Accordingly the "Nemesis" steamer was sent up the river to reconnoitre, and on nearing the Bogue forts (thirty in number), it was discovered that preparations for defence had been made; batteries and field-works had been thrown up along the shore, and upon the islands in the middle of the river a barrier was in course of construction across the channel, and there were large bodies of troops assembled from the interior. Keshen finding his duplicity discovered, communicated that further negotiations would be declined. The Emperor, it appeared, had issued edicts repudiating the treaty and denouncing the English barbarians, "who were like dogs and sheep in their dispositions." That in sleeping or eating he found no quiet, and he therefore ordered 8000 of his best troops to defend Canton, and to recover the places on the coast ; for it was absolutely necessary (said the Emperor) "that the rebellious foreigners must give up their heads, which, with the prisoners, were to be sent to Pekin in cages, to undergo the last penalty of the law." He also offered \$50,000 for the apprehension of Elliot, Morison or Berner alive, or \$30,000 for either of their heads. In addition, \$5000 for an officer's head, \$500 for an Englishman alive, \$300 for a head, and \$100 for a Sepoy alive. The Emperor also delivered Keshen in irons over to the board of punishment at Pekin, and divested the Admiral Kwan Teenpei of his button. Before the hostile edicts had appeared Captain Elliot, confiding on the good faith of Keshen, had sent orders to General Burrell to restore the island of Chusan (which the English had taken many months before) to the Chinese, and to return with the Bengal Volunteers to Calcutta. This order had been promptly obeyed, Chusan having been evacuated February 29th.

FALL OF CANTON.

Captain Elliot set sail on February 20th up the Canton River. On the 24th he destroyed a masked field-work, disabling eighty cannon there

mounted. On the 25th and 26th he took three adjoining Bogue forts without losing a man, killing about 250 Chinese and taking 1300 prisoners. The subsequent operations of the squadron presented one unbroken succession of brilliant achievements, until, on the 28th of March, Canton, the second city in the Chinese Empire, containing a million of souls, was placed at the mercy of the British troops. After some sharp fighting the Canton Governor yielded, and the troops and ships were withdrawn on condition of the three commissioners and all the troops under them leaving Canton and its vicinity, and \$6,000,000 to be paid within a week, the first million before evening of that day; if the whole was not paid before the end of the week the ransom was to be raised to \$7,000,000; if not before the end of fourteen days, to \$8,000,000; and if not before twenty days, to \$9,000,000. After three days, the conditions having been fulfilled, the troops left for Hong Kong, having had thirteen men killed and ninety-seven wounded.

CAPTURE OF AMOY.

Sir Henry Pottinger, the new Plenipotentiary, and Rear-Admiral Parker, the new Naval Commander-in-Chief, arrived at Macao on the 9th of August. A notification of Sir Henry's presence and powers was sent to Canton immediately on his arrival, accompanied by a letter forwarded to the Emperor at Peking, the answer to which was required to be sent to a northern station. The fleet, consisting of nine ships of war, four armed steamers and twenty-two transports, sailed for the island and city of Amoy on the 21st of August. The Chinese made an animated defence for four hours, and then fled from all their fortifications, and also from the city, carrying with them their treasures. The Chinese junks and war-boats were all captured; and the cannon, with immense munitions of war, of course fell into the hands of the English. Not a single man of the British was killed, and only nine were wounded. The next day Sir Hugh Gough entered the city at the head of his troops without opposition.

CAPTURE OF SHANGHAI.

After an arrival of reinforcements the British expedition, on June 13th, entered the Yang-tse-Kiang, on the banks of which were immense fortifications. The fleet at daylight having taken their stations, the batteries opened a fire which lasted two hours. The seamen and

marines then landed, and drove the Chinese out of their batteries before the troops could be disembarked. Two hundred and fifty-three guns were taken, of heavy calibre and 11 feet long. On the 19th two other batteries were taken, in which were 48 guns. The troops then took possession of the city of Shanghai.

TREATY SIGNED AT NANKIN.

A strong garrison being left behind for the retention of Ching-Kiang-foo, the fleet proceeded towards Nankin, about forty miles distant, and arrived on the 6th of August, when preparations were immediately made for an attack on the city. A strong force under the command of Major-General Lord Saltoun was landed and took up their position to the west of the town; and operations were about to be commenced, when a letter was sent off to the plenipotentiary, requesting a truce, as certain high commissioners, specially delegated by the Emperor, and possessed of all powers to negotiate, were on their way to treat with the English. After several visits and long discussions between the contracting powers, the treaty was publicly signed on board the "Cornwallis" by Sir H. Pottinger and the three commissioners.

Under the terms of this treaty, which was ratified in 1843, the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai were opened to British commerce, and Hong Kong was ceded outright to Great Britain. Hong Kong has since become one of the greatest commercial marts of the world.

ANNEXATION OF NATAL.

A considerable addition was made to the British Empire in South Africa in 1842 by the annexation of Natal. This colony had been founded largely by the Dutch, who had migrated from Cape Colony in the Great Trek. It was, however, always claimed by Great Britain, and was recognized by the European powers as being within the British sphere of influence. When, therefore, disorders arose, and quarrels between the Dutch settlers and the British authorities of the Cape, annexation speedily followed.

O'CONNELL'S AGITATION.

The union between Great Britain and Ireland, which had been effected at the beginning of the century, had all along been a source of some dissatisfaction in Ireland. In 1843 this dissatisfaction found in Daniel O'Connell a most eloquent voice. He began an

open movement to secure the repeal of the Act of Union. In August, 1843, he organized a monster mass-meeting on the historic hill of Tara, in consequence of which he was arrested in October. Upon his liberation, however, he continued his efforts for disunion, or separation, and though he was not successful, he started the movement which has continued to the present time, and which led to the great Home Rule campaign of Charles S. Parnell. O'Connell's health failed soon after his separatist campaign was begun, and in 1847 he died.

BRITISH INTERESTS.

The Melbourne ministry in Great Britain went out of office in 1841, and Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister. Thus the way was opened for the triumph of the Anti-Corn Law movement and the adoption of free trade, which was effected at a later date. In 1844 Peel remodeled the Bank of England and granted that institution a new charter.

On the 30th of May, 1842, as Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, accompanied by Prince Albert, was returning down Constitution Hill to Buckingham Palace from her afternoon's ride, a young man, named John Francis, fired a pistol at the carriage, but without effecting any injury. It was supposed that he was incited to this criminal act partly by desperation, and partly by the eclat awarded to Edward Oxford, who performed a similar exploit in June, 1840. The news reached the House of Commons while the debate on the property tax was in progress, and the House broke up. The next day the bill was carried by a majority of 106.

A joint address congratulating Her Majesty on her happy escape was presented from both houses of Parliament on the 1st of June, and a form of thanksgiving was sanctioned by the Privy Council. It appeared that some danger had been apprehended in consequence of the same person having been observed in the park on the preceding day; and Lord Portman stated in the House of Lords that Her Majesty in consequence would not permit, on the 30th of May, the attendance of those ladies whose duty it was to wait upon her on such occasions. Francis was examined by the Privy Council, and then committed to Newgate. He was tried, found guilty of high treason, and sentenced to be hung, beheaded and quartered; but it was deemed proper to remit the extreme penalties and commute his sentence to transportation for life.

Scarcely more than a month had elapsed when a third attempt, or

pretended attempt, on the life of the Queen was made in St. James's Park, Her Majesty being at the time on her way from Buckingham Palace to the chapel royal, accompanied by Prince Albert and the King of the Belgians. A lad, about eighteen years of age, named John William Bean, was observed to present a pistol at Her Majesty's carriage by a youth named Dasset, who seized him and related the circumstances to two policemen. They treated it as a joke and Bean was allowed to depart, but he was subsequently apprehended at his father's house and committed to prison. On his examination he persisted in asserting that there was nothing but powder and paper in the pistol, and that he did not intend to hurt the Queen. In fact, he appeared to be one of those weak beings who seem actuated by a morbid desire of notoriety.

TWO REVOLUTIONS.

In a former chapter we told of the flight of the Queen-Regent of Spain and the assumption of sovereign power by General Espartero under sanction of the Cortes. In 1843 a bloodless revolution, led by General Narvaez, put an end to Espartero's regency, and the young Queen, Isabella II, was declared to be of age and competent to rule in person.

In the same year a revolution arose in Greece against the absolute rule of King Otho. That sovereign was compelled to promise the granting of a constitutional form of government, and in the following year that promise was fulfilled, though much against the will of the King.

A fatal blow at the Bourbon dynasty in France was struck in 1842 when the young Duke of Orleans, eldest son of Louis Philippe, was accidentally killed. He was by far the ablest and most popular member of the house, and the only one whose hold upon the public regard was sufficient to command the loyalty of the nation.

The French campaigns in Africa were continued in 1844 by the defeat of Abd-el-Kader, the Algerian chieftain. His ally, the Emperor of Morocco, was also disastrously defeated, and was glad to sue for peace, which was granted to him.

The brothers Bandiera attempted a revolution in Southern Italy, but failed and were put to death.

In 1844 also Charles XIV of Sweden was succeeded by his son, Oscar I.

CHAPTER XXI.

**Fremont Explores the Rocky Mountains—Newspapers—Telegraphy—
Wheatstone's System—Greenough's "Washington"—
Labor Troubles—Francia, the Dictator—
Autocracy Extraordinary.**

THE period of the Harrison-Tyler administration was signalized in the United States by a noteworthy advance in the exploration of what was then the great wilderness west of the Mississippi River. The leader in this work, who thus gained for himself the well deserved name of "The Pathfinder," was John Charles Fremont, a native of Georgia, of French Huguenot ancestry. He had for some time been in the employ of the Government as an engineer, when in 1838 he laid before the War Department a plan for the exploration of the Rocky Mountains and the region beyond them. His plan was approved, and accordingly he proceeded with the work. In 1842 he explored the South Pass. Next he planned an expedition to Oregon, and in pursuance thereof he approached the mountains by a new route, explored the region between the South Pass and the Great Salt Lake, and various other parts of the mountain range. Another expedition led by him made its way across the mountains into upper California, exploring the great basin since called Fremont's Basin, the Sierra Nevada, and the San Joaquin and Sacramento valleys. Finally, in 1845, he set out on that memorable expedition to the Pacific coast which resulted in the acquisition of California by the United States.

NEWSPAPERS.

It was fitting that in times so full of stirring incidents there should be marked progress in the means of recording current history. Long before the opening of the nineteenth century the newspaper press had become a well established institution. But at about the time at which we are now writing its expansion in the United States was particularly marked. Of the great morning papers now in existence in New York

the "Sun" was the first in the field, having been started as a one-cent paper in 1833. It was followed in 1835 by the "Herald." The year 1841 saw the "Tribune" founded by Horace Greeley, and ten years later the "Times" appeared.

These papers were in 1841 printed on the single-cylinder presses, which had been invented by Robert Hoe in 1832. That press continued in use until 1847, but in 1845 Mr. Hoe invented the type-revolving press, and this machine rapidly came into use in all parts of the world. It held the field until 1868-71, when the web-perfecting press came into use, invented by Mr. Bullock, of Philadelphia, Mr. Walters, of the London "Times," and Mr. Hoe. The use of stereotype plates had meanwhile been found practicable in the New York "Tribune" office first of all in America. If to this we add the introduction of the lineotype and other type-setting or casting devices, about 1880, and that of photo-engraving processes for illustration, ten years later, the modern history of newspapers is covered in outline.

TELEGRAPHY.

The electric telegraph, one of the newspaper's most important adjuncts, and one of the most valuable inventions of modern times, dates also from the period which we have under consideration. As is the case of other devices, its actual origin is in dispute. Wheatstone, of England, was one of the first—perhaps the first—to make a practical telegraph system. The distinction was also claimed by Professor Morse, an American, who, as he said, invented the first electro-magnetic telegraph while on his passage from Havre to New York in 1832. His contrivance included a pen at one end of a wire, which, as contact was made or broken, produced an arbitrary alphabet of dots and strokes, which might represent definite characters. An experiment with a circuit of ten miles was tried before several scientific men, well known in the United States, and members of Congress; and the result being favorable, a sum of money was voted by the Government for a trial on a larger scale. The account of these proceedings appears not to have been published earlier than 1837; meantime Baron Schilling, of St. Petersburg, had constructed an electric telegraph, but died before its complete development. By his method, movements were imparted to five needles, out of which a code of signals was formed. Gauss and Weber's experiments and deductions,



JAMES C. BLAINE



CHARLES SUMNER



HENRY CLAY



DANIEL WEBSTER



BENJAMIN DISRAELI



OTTO VON BISMARCK



LORD SALISBURY



1850—STREET SCENE IN PARIS IN THE MIDDLE OF THE CENTURY

published in 1834, brought the possibility of electro-telegraphy still more within reach. To these two philosophers the theory of the science is materially indebted. The first-mentioned, the venerable professor of Gottingen, has been called its father, such are the sagacity and insight which he had brought to bear on so intricate a subject.

We come now to 1837, the year in which the projects of electro-telegraphy became available realities. Steinheil, of Munich, succeeded in sending a current from one end to the other of a wire 36,000 feet in length, the action of which caused two needles to vibrate from side to side, and strike a bell at each movement. The bells were made to differ in tone, so as to indicate distinctly right and left signals; at the same time to combine a phonic and a written alphabet; certain points tipped with ink impressed dots upon a band of paper, and recorded the desired message. In the course of his researches Steinheil proved a fact, the most interesting, perhaps, in telegraphic science, that instead of using two wires, the earth would serve to complete the circuit. This verification of a phenomenon so extraordinary in its nature was attended with the most important results in the economy of telegraphs, and tends more to keep Steinheil's name in memory than his mechanical apparatus, which was said to be too complicated and tedious in operation for anyone but a German.

WHEATSTONE'S SYSTEM.

It was in 1837 also that Wheatstone, whose name is so intimately associated with telegraphic progress in England, took out his first patent for an electric telegraph. He had been led to the invention by his experiments to determine the philosophy of electricity in 1834, and proposed a system of five conducting wires in connection with as many needles, which indicated the letters of the alphabet at the rate of twenty a minute. Attention was to be drawn to the signals by the stroke of a bell, forming part of the apparatus.

In 1840 Wheatstone had made improvements which greatly simplified his first methods. The number of wires was reduced to two, while the power of the instrument was increased, for thirty letters could be indicated in a minute. Besides this, the same inventor showed that the passage of a current afforded means for other spheres of observation. Travelling at a speed that would circumvolute the globe seven or eight times in a second, it might measure the rate of motion of projectiles, or

regulate the movement of all the clocks in the country ; and by an additional contrivance, the place of fracture in a wire could be ascertained without examining its whole length. A telegraphic wire was to bring down from a balloon, stationary at a considerable height, the readings of a set of philosophical instruments ; to record the state of fluctuations of a barometer, thermometer, hygrometer and magnetometer.

The employment of the printing apparatus in 1843 gave to the electric telegraph a wider and completer efficiency. This contrivance, when attached to the telegraph machinery, and set in motion by wheelwork, caused a ribbon of chemically prepared paper to pass under a fine steel point, which imprinted a series of arbitrary characters—dots and strokes—simultaneously with their transmission from the other end of the telegraph, however distant. Although seventy or eighty characters could be produced in a minute, the whole process was tedious, as the message had first to be punched in a strip of paper and then written off after its delivery. In America the preliminary punching was avoided by making the operator open or close the galvanic circuit for longer or shorter intervals, by pressing on the spring-key of the telegraph, according to the duration strokes or dots were produced.

A successful telegraph line was constructed by Morse in 1844 between Baltimore and Washington, and it was the beginning of the vast network of wires that now covers this continent.

GREENOUGH'S WASHINGTON.

Artistic progress in the United States was signalized during this administration by the completion of Greenough's famous statue of Washington. Its creator, Horatio Greenough, was a native of Boston, a student at Hartford, and a protegee of Washington Allston. He studied art under Thorwaldsen at Rome, and was the author of a number of pieces of sculpture which commanded the highest praise and stamped him as one of the foremost artists of his time. By a curious coincidence his teacher, Thorwaldsen, died in 1844, just as Greenough was reaching the height of his success.

The same year saw the death of Geoffrey Saint-Hilaire, the famous French naturalist. Robert Southey, the English poet-laureate and one of the most prolific writers of that or any age, died in the preceding year.

One of the most striking literary incidents of the time was the publication, in 1844, of Eugene Sue's romance, "The Wandering Jew."

We must note, also, the first visit of Charles Dickens to the United States. The famous novelist made a tour of the country, lecturing and reading from his works. He was everywhere received with the greatest possible honors and enthusiasm. One disagreeable result of his visit was, however, the publication of his "American Notes" and other writings, in which the United States was severely criticised and caricatured.

The city of Hamburg, Germany, was ravaged by a disastrous fire in May, 1842. The next year the Thames tunnel, then deemed one of the engineering wonders of the world, was completed and opened to the public.

We have elsewhere spoken of the Bunker Hill monument. It was completed and dedicated, with an oration by Daniel Webster, on June 17, 1843.

LABOR TROUBLES.

From time to time labor troubles demand notice in the history of the United States and of the world. In April, 1834, the laborers on the Providence Railroad struck at Mansfield, Mass., and became riotous. The Massachusetts militia was called out to suppress their disorders, and succeeded in so doing. In August, 1835, the operatives of twenty mills in Paterson, N. J., struck for shorter hours of work. This seems to have been a determined struggle, but the strikers lost their points of contention, and \$24,000 in wages besides. The ten-hour-day agitation was continued by the coal handlers of Philadelphia in May, 1835, though without decisive result, while the same year the journeymen shoemakers again struck for shorter hours and more pay, and again carried their point. Next in order came the dam-builders in Maine, in July, 1836, with their successful contention for the right to smoke at work; and of the fifteen strikes between that year and 1842, so meagre are the statistics, it is apparent barely that ten were successful, and three without positive advantage to either side.

The first strike of the ironmakers of Pittsburg, of which there seems to be record, is that of February 5, 1842. They demanded a fixed wage scale, and lost five months' wages and the strike. In August of the same year the weavers of Philadelphia struck for more wages, and were as

disorderly, in their way, it seems, as the tailors of Tooley street. They raised a great deal of row, and their disorders were not quieted until January, 1843, when there was a settlement in the nature of a compromise. The strike of the brickmakers in May, 1843, was attended by rioting and considerable destruction of property, but there was no decided advantage to either party to the contest. In May, 1845, the ironworkers of Pittsburg struck again, this time for \$6.00 instead of \$5.00 a ton, and this time they were successful.

FRANCIA, THE DICTATOR.

The year 1842 witnessed the end of one of the strangest chapters in the annals of human government, in the death of one man, who may be pronounced the most remarkable personage that has figured in the modern history of South America. This was Gaspar Rodrigo de Francia, commonly known as Doctor Francia. He was a native of Paraguay, and never was out of South America. He was educated by the monks of Assumpcion, and subsequently at the University of Cordova, in Tucuman, where he received the degree of Doctor of Theology. This man became dictator of Paraguay, and for nearly thirty years reigned over that country with a despotic tyranny surpassing that of any European monarch.

On the breaking out of the revolution, Francia was in the practice of the law at Assumpcion. He was elected to a popular office, behaved independently, flattered no party, and professed his sole political object to be the entire separation of Paraguay from Spain, and its erection into an independent republic. On the establishment of the Provincial Junta, he was appointed Secretary of that body, with a deliberative voice; but all was confusion. The army, as usual on such occasions, seemed inclined to take the lead, and, for a time, terror and dissension alone prevailed. Francia, however, at this critical moment, obtained an ascendancy which he never afterwards lost. His superior talents, address and information placed him above all others in the despatch of business, and nothing of importance could be done without him. Tranquillity was restored, and it was settled that the Government should be consular. Francia and a colleague were appointed consuls for one year, each in supreme command four months at a time. Francia took care to secure for his share the first and last portions of the year. Two curule chairs



1850—STAGE AND MAIL COACH IN THE MIDDLE OF THE CENTURY



1850—HENRY CLAY MAKING HIS FAMOUS SPEECH ON THE "MISSOURI COMPROMISE" IN
THE UNITED STATES SENATE

were prepared on this occasion; one bearing the name of Cæsar, and the other that of Pompey. Francia eagerly took possession of the former. His ambitious views no one could mistake; but the grand blow yet remained to be struck. By the most consummate art and management, and by the influence which he possessed over the troops, he succeeded in getting himself appointed dictator in 1814; and once dictator, every instrument was within his reach for the prolongation of his office. Three years afterwards he was made dictator for life.

AUTOCRACY EXTRAORDINARY.

Now commenced one of the most extraordinary events in all history, the reign of the autocrat of Paraguay. From the moment when he found his footing firm, and his authority quietly submitted to, his whole character appeared to undergo a sudden change. Without faltering or hesitation, without a pause of human weakness, or a thrill of human feeling, he proceeded to frame the most extraordinary despotism that the world has ever seen. He reduced all the population of Paraguay to two classes, of which the dictator constituted one, and his subjects the other. In the dictator was lodged the whole power, legislative and executive; the people had no power, no privileges, no rights, and only one duty—to obey. All was performed rapidly, boldly and decisively. He knew the character of the weak and ignorant people at whose head he had placed himself, and who had the temerity to presume that they possessed energy and virtue sufficient to found a republic. The middle classes were annihilated, and there was no gradation between ruler and populace.

By what precise means he was enabled to obtain so extraordinary a power, and to preserve it, undisturbed by revolution or popular disaffection, during a long period, in which every other State of Spanish America has been constantly shaken with intestine convulsions, can be understood perhaps only by those who are familiar with the character of the South Americans. But the fact is no less authentic than extraordinary, that the inhabitants of Paraguay delivered themselves up, bound hand and foot into the power of an unrelenting and ferocious despot, who reduced them to absolute slavery, ruined their commerce and agriculture, shut them up from the rest of the world, and dragged to the prison or the scaffold every man in the country whose talents, wealth or knowledge opposed any obstacle in the way of his tyranny.

One of his first measures was to cut off all intercourse with every place beyond the boundaries of Paraguay. No human being was allowed to leave the country or despatch a letter abroad. In enforcing this prohibition, the dictator was assisted by the peculiar geographical features of the country. In the midst of an immense and thinly-peopled continent, it stands alone and impenetrable, surrounded by large rivers and extensive forests and morasses, frequented only by ferocious savages, wild beasts and venomous serpents. The vigilant guard maintained by the troops of the dictator, at all accessible points of his Empire, enabled him to isolate it completely from the rest of the world. The only possibility of escape was by seizing the occasion when the river Paraguay overflowed the surrounding plains, by which means a small number of individuals have succeeded in eloping from the tyrant's dominion, and acquainting the world with the internal policy of this extraordinary Empire. Foreign travellers, who were visiting that region for scientific purposes, were imprisoned with the dictator's subjects, and escaped by good fortune after long and tedious detention. When the independence of the South American republics was acknowledged by Great Britain, a notification of this event was sent to Francia, with a request that all British subjects in his realms might be set at liberty. This fortunately procured the release of all the English in Paraguay.

Several conspiracies were formed against him, but none with any success. The sanguinary punishments which followed their detection served to strike a deeper terror into the people and render their submission more abject. His regular army consisted of 5000 men, from whom he always took care to exclude all persons of education or belonging to wealthy families. Very strict discipline was enforced in all that related to their conduct as soldiers; but when off duty, they were at perfect liberty, led licentious lives, and were seldom reprimanded for any misconduct toward the citizens. It is easy to understand why an army like this should feel unbounded attachment to its master. The dictator, however, lived in constant fear of assassination; his guards were sometimes ordered to shoot any man who should dare to *look* at his house in passing through the street. He cooked his own victuals, in apprehension of poison, and never smoked a cigar without previously unrolling it, for the same reason. His conduct on many occasions exhibited eccentricities similar to those of Charles XII, of Sweden.

CHAPTER XXII.

James K. Polk becomes President of the United States—The Mexican War—General Taylor at the Front—Palo Alto—Monterey—President Santa Anna—Taylor Resumes Operations—Buena Vista—Scott at Vera Cruz—Cerro Gordo—Two Bloody Battles—Suing for Peace—Capture of the City of Mexico—Conquest of New Mexico—Fremont's Conquest of California—Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo—The Wilmot Proviso—Discovery of Gold—Close of the Administration—The Free Soil Party.

IN 1845, Mr. Tyler was succeeded as President of the United States by James Knox Polk. Mr. Polk was the Democratic candidate; and, after a very exciting electioneering contest, he received 170 electoral votes for President; and Henry Clay, the Whig candidate, received 105 votes.

The party by which Mr. Polk was supported took strong ground in favor of the annexation of Texas, and the claim of the United States to the whole of the Oregon Territory; and Mr. Polk, in his inaugural address, sustained the views of his party on both of these questions; one of which threatened to involve the nation in hostilities with Mexico, and the other with Great Britain.

The settlement of the north-western boundary, between the United States and the North American territories of Great Britain, involving the claims of both parties to the Oregon Territory, had long been a subject of negotiation; and it now assumed a threatening aspect. But it was happily adjusted by a treaty, concluded at Washington, in June, 1846, fixing on the 49th degree of north latitude as the boundary line.

On the recommendation of the President, Congress passed, in July, 1846, a new tariff law, having a primary view to the interests of the public revenue, and withdrawing, in a great measure, the protection to domestic industry afforded by the tariff of 1842.

THE MEXICAN WAR.

The war with Mexico grew out of the annexation of Texas to the United States. Texas, which was formerly a province of Mexico, declared its independence in 1836; and, from that time, it had maintained a separate Republican government; but its independence had not been acknowledged by Mexico. In March, 1845, immediately after the passage of the resolutions of Congress in favor of the annexation, General Almonte, the Mexican Minister to the United States, remonstrated against these resolutions, and demanded his passports; and all diplomatic intercourse between the two governments was immediately broken off.

The boundaries of Texas were never definitely settled. The government of Texas and the United States maintained that the South-western boundary of that country was formed by the Rio Grande; but the Mexicans contended that that boundary was formed by the River Nueces. The country between these two rivers was disputed territory, both parties claiming it. It was on this disputed territory that hostilities commenced; and each party charged the other with being the aggressor.

In July, 1845, the Legislature of Texas ratified the resolutions of Congress, by which that Republic was annexed to the United States, and requested President Polk to take immediate measures to defend the new State against an apprehended attack from Mexico. An American squadron was accordingly dispatched to the Gulf of Mexico, and General Zachary Taylor was ordered to proceed to the southern frontier of Texas, with a sufficient force for its defence.

GENERAL TAYLOR AT THE FRONT.

In March, 1846, General Taylor, having previously concentrated an army of about 4000 men at Corpus Christi, received orders from the United States government to move forward, into the disputed territory, to the Rio Grande. He accordingly took a position on the left bank of that river, opposite to Matamoras, where he erected a fort; and, at the same time, he established a depot of supplies at Point Isabel, upwards of twenty miles in his rear, near the coast.

A Mexican force of about 8000 men was soon assembled on the Rio Grande, at and near Matamoras, under the command of Generals Apudía and Arista, who declared the advance of General Taylor with

his army to be a hostile movement. On the 24th of April, General Arista informed General Taylor that "he considered hostilities commenced, and should prosecute them." On the same day a party of 63 American dragoons, under Captain Thornton, who had been despatched to reconnoitre, were surprised by a large Mexican force, 16 being killed and wounded, and the rest taken prisoners.

A few days afterwards, the greater part of the Mexican army crossed the river, and General Taylor, being informed that they intended to attack Point Isabel, where his military stores were deposited, marched to the relief of that place, which he reached unmolested. The garrison there having been strengthened by a reinforcement of 500 sailors and marines, from the American squadron in the Gulf of Mexico, he began, on the 7th of May, to retrace his steps to the Rio Grande.

PALO ALTO.

About noon the next day he encountered the Mexican army, of 6000 men, at Palo Alto; and, after an action of five hours, he drove them from the field, with the loss of nearly 400 in killed and wounded. The Americans, whose number was about 2300, lost about 50 in killed and wounded, and among the former was the lamented Major Ringgold.

On the following day, after advancing three miles, the American army again met the Mexicans, strongly posted at Resaca de la Palma, and completely routed them, killing and wounding about 600, taking a large number of prisoners, among whom was General La Vega, and capturing all the cannon and military stores of the enemy. A few days after this battle, General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande, and took possession of Matamoras, which had been left by the Mexican troops.

MONTEREY.

After three months' preparation, General Taylor, with an army of between 6000 and 7000 men, proceeded to attack the strongly fortified city of Monterey, the capital of the State of New Leon, which was garrisoned by about 10,000 Mexican troops, commanded by General Ampudia.

The American army reached Monterey on the 19th of September, 1846, and, on the 21st, assaulted the city with the view of taking it by storm; and, after a severe and sanguinary struggle of three days, they

became masters of the principal defences, and the greater part of the city. On the 24th, General Ampudia proposed terms of capitulation, which were accepted, and the Mexican army evacuated Monterey. At the same time, General Taylor agreed to an armistice of eight weeks, subject to the ratification of the governments at Washington and Mexico.

PRESIDENT SANTA ANNA.

While these events were taking place near the Rio Grande, General Santa Anna, ex-President of Mexico, and the most distinguished military commander of that country, had returned from exile, and had overthrown the government of President Paredes, who was at the head of the party supposed to be most in favor of prosecuting the war with the United States. Strong hopes were entertained by the American government that the influence of Santa Anna, on his restoration to power, would be exerted in favor of peace; and the President accordingly had given orders to the naval commander in the Gulf of Mexico, to throw no obstacles in the way of his return. But these expectations proved to be ill-founded; and, under his administration, the Mexicans were roused to greater efforts, than they had hitherto made, to repel their invaders.

Under these circumstances, the American government resolved to strike a decisive blow, by attacking Vera Cruz, the principal Mexican port and fortress, with the intention of thereby gaining access to the heart of the country, and to the capital of the Republic, for the avowed purpose of "conquering a peace." General Winfield Scott was accordingly ordered to take the chief command of all the forces in Mexico, and to conduct the expedition against Vera Cruz.

TAYLOR RESUMES OPERATIONS.

The armistice, which General Taylor had concluded at Monterey, was not approved by the authorities at Washington; and, in November, his army resumed offensive operations, and speedily overran and subdued the States of Coahuila and Tamaulipas. About this time, however, General Scott arrived at the seat of war, and withdrew from General Taylor the principal part of his army, including nearly all of the regular troops, to augment the forces destined to besiege Vera Cruz.

In February, 1847, General Taylor formed a camp of about 5000 men, mostly volunteers, of Agua Nueva, near the city of Saltillo. On

the 20th of the month, he learned that Santa Anna, with 20,000 troops, had arrived within 30 miles of him, by a series of forced marches from San Luis Potosi, 300 miles distant, across a barren country, almost destitute of water. General Taylor immediately broke up his camp, and fell back 11 miles to Buena Vista, where he posted his army in a very strong position, protected by deep ravines and rugged mountainous ridges.

BUENA VISTA.

On the 22d of February, the Mexican army appeared before the American lines, and Santa Anna summoned General Taylor to surrender, which the latter declined to do. Some skirmishing ensued; but the battle did not begin until the 23d, when the Mexicans attempted, by repeated charges, to force the American lines. Notwithstanding some partial success, achieved by their immense superiority of force, they were, at length, completely repulsed: and, after a fierce and sanguinary contest, which lasted throughout the day, the Americans remained masters of the field. During the night, the Mexicans abandoned their camp, and retreated, in a state of great disorder, towards San Luis Potosi, from whence they had advanced. The Americans' loss, in this battle, was 723 killed and wounded, and that of the Mexicans amounted to about 2000.

SCOTT AT VERA CRUZ.

On the 9th of March, 1847, General Scott landed near Vera Cruz, with an army of about 12,000 men. The city was immediately invested, and after a furious bombardment of several days, during which the destruction of life and property was very great, the Mexican commander, on the 29th of March, capitulated and surrendered the city, and also the famous fortress of San Juan d'Ulloa, together with 5000 prisoners and 400 pieces of artillery.

Early in April the American army began its march from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. At the mountain pass of Cerro Gordo, about 50 miles from Vera Cruz, it encountered the Mexican army, commanded by President Santa Anna, consisting of 12,000 or 15,000 men, strongly entrenched in an almost impregnable position.

CERRO GORDO.

On the 18th of April, the Americans, who numbered 8500, began the assault, and in a few hours carried by storm all the batteries and

entrenchments of the Mexicans, who fled in confusion, leaving in the hands of the victors about 3000 prisoners, 4000 or 5000 stand of arms, and 43 pieces of artillery. Among the prisoners were five generals, one of whom, La Vega, had before been captured in the battle of Resaca de la Palma. The American loss in this engagement was 431 killed and wounded; the Mexican loss, about three times as many.

The victory of Cerro Gordo was followed by the immediate surrender of the city of Jalapa, and the strong fortress of Perote, and, on the 15th of May, the Americans entered Puebla, the most important city in Mexico, next to the capital. Here, the army, which had been diminished by death, sickness, and the departure of volunteers, to about 5000 effective men, remained nearly three months, waiting for reinforcements and supplies.

TWO BLOODY BATTLES.

On the 7th of August, 1847, reinforcements having arrived, General Scott began his march from Puebla to the city of Mexico, at the head of about 11,000 men. On the 18th, the army reached the hamlet of San Augustin, 10 miles south of the capital; and, on the 20th, two sanguinary battles were fought with a Mexican force of more than 30,000 men, who were stationed in and around the strongly fortified posts that defended the approaches to the city. In the first battle, that of Contreras, 4500 Americans assaulted, and, in less than twenty minutes, drove from their entrenchments, 7000 Mexicans, killing 700 and taking 813 prisoners, besides many colors and standards, and 22 pieces of artillery. In the second battle, that of Churubusco, the disparity of force was even greater, and the Mexican loss still more severe—about 6000 Americans engaging and completely routing almost the whole Mexican army. General Scott thus speaks of the achievements of the army under his command on this occasion: "It has in a single day, in many battles, defeated 32,000 men; made about 3000 prisoners, including 8 generals (two of them ex-Presidents) and 205 other officers; killed or wounded 4000 of all ranks, besides entire corps dispersed and dissolved; captured 37 pieces of ordnance,—more than trebling our siege train and field batteries,—with a large number of small arms, a full supply of ammunition of every kind, etc. Our loss amounts to 1053—killed, 139, including 16 officers; wounded, 876, including 60 officers."

SUING FOR PEACE.

These rapid and decisive victories caused such consternation among the Mexicans that General Scott might at once have forced his way into the city; but he forebore to do so, not wishing to drive the people to desperation, and, to use his own words: "willing to leave something to the Republic on which to rest her pride and recover temper." Accordingly, he acceded to a request made by President Santa Anna for an armistice, the terms of which were agreed upon and signed on the 23d of August.

Mr. Nicholas Trist, a commissioner appointed by the President of the United States, had arrived in Mexico some months before, and was now in General Scott's camp. Negotiations for peace were immediately commenced between him and commissioners appointed by the Mexican government. But as the latter proposed terms that were not satisfactory, and the Mexican military commanders were violating the terms of the armistice by erecting and strengthening fortifications, General Scott recommenced hostilities on the 7th of September.

CAPTURE OF THE CITY OF MEXICO.

On the following day, a division of the American army, 3200 in number, commanded by General Worth, carried by storm the strong position of El Molino del Ray, which was held by above 14,000 Mexicans, under the command of President Santa Anna. The Mexican loss in this action, which was perhaps the most fiercely contested of the whole war, amounted to 3000 in killed, wounded and captured. The Americans lost, in killed and wounded, nearly 800, about one-fourth of the number engaged.

Five days afterwards, the fortress of Chapultepec, situated on a steep, rocky hill, 150 feet in height, was stormed, and the army which supported it was routed and driven into the city; the victorious Americans followed, and, by nightfall, one division of their army was within the gates of Mexico, while another occupied the suburbs. During the night, the shattered remnant of the Mexican army, and the members of the Federal government and Congress, fled from the city, of which the Americans took full possession on the next day, September 14th, 1847.

The total loss of General Scott's army, in these battles before Mexico, amounted to about 2700 in killed and wounded. The number

of American troops that entered and took possession of this city of 140,000 inhabitants was less than 6000.

CONQUEST OF NEW MEXICO.

Besides the invasions of Mexico by the armies commanded by Generals Taylor and Scott, another was conducted by General Kearny, who, in the latter part of June, 1846, set out from Missouri, at the head of 1600 men, mostly volunteers from that State, for the purpose of conquering New Mexico.

After a fatiguing march of about 1000 miles across the prairies, General Kearny arrived at Santa Fe, of which he took possession, without opposition, on the 18th of August. He immediately declared himself Governor of New Mexico, and issued a proclamation, absolving the people from their allegiance to the Mexican government, and constituting them citizens of the United States.

In December, 1846, Colonel Doniphan, a volunteer from the State of Missouri, departed from Santa Fe, at the head of 900 men, to invade the Mexican State of Chihuahua. At Bracito, on the Rio Grande, a division of this force, 500 in number, encountered 1200 Mexicans, whom they put to flight, with a loss of about 200 in killed and wounded, while the Americans had none killed, and only 7 wounded.

Two months later, on the 28th of February, 1847, at the Pass of Sacramento, Colonel Doniphan's little army met and defeated 4000 Mexicans, commanded by the Governor of the State, and occupying a strong position, defended by heavy artillery. On the following day, March 1, they took possession of the important city of Chihuahua.

FREMONT'S CONQUEST OF CALIFORNIA.

In the summer of 1846, Captain (afterwards Colonel) Fremont, who, with a party of about 600 men, was exploring California by order of the President of the United States, became involved in hostilities with the Mexican Governor of that province. With the aid of a few American settlers, Fremont defeated the Mexican forces, which were much superior in number; and, on learning that war existed between the United States and Mexico, he raised the American flag, and in conjunction with Commodore Stockton, who commanded the United States fleet in the Pacific, prosecuted the conquest of the country with such success, that, by the end of August, the whole of California was in possession of the Americans.

TREATY OF GUADALUPE HIDALGO.

Soon after the conquest of the city of Mexico, by General Scott, negotiations for peace began, which resulted in a treaty concluded on the 2d of February, 1848, at the city of Guadalupe Hidalgo, and ratified, with some modifications, by the American Senate on the 10th of the following March. By its provisions Mexico ceded to the United States the provinces of New Mexico and Upper California, and agreed to accept the Rio Grande as the boundary between her territories and Texas. The territory acquired from Mexico by this treaty, including Texas as well as New Mexico and California, amounts, according to the statement of President Polk in his message to Congress in December, 1848, to 851,598 square miles. The United States, in return, stipulated to pay Mexico \$15,000,000, and assume the debts due to citizens of the United States by the Mexican government to the amount of \$3,500,000.

THE WILMOT PROVISIO.

The conclusion of peace with Mexico, in February, 1848, added to the United States an enormous territory, comprising the present States and Territories of California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico and part of Colorado. Such a result had been foreseen. Indeed, it was largely to acquire such territory that many political leaders, especially in the Southern States, had favored the war with Mexico, and their ultimate object was the creation of new slave States south of the line established by the Missouri Compromise. In order to prevent such increase of slave power in Congress, in 1846 David Wilmot, a member of Congress from Pennsylvania, offered a resolution providing that slavery should be forever prohibited in all the territory that should be acquired from Mexico. This resolution has become historic as the Wilmot Proviso, and it marked the turning-point in the history of the slave power; for, while it failed to pass Congress and be enacted into law, it formulated a policy which was adopted by the free States, and which finally was triumphant. As in matter of fact, no new slave State, excepting Texas, was ever admitted to the Union.

DISCOVERY OF GOLD.

The end of the Mexican War brought on the settlement and development of California. The agricultural wealth of that State would have led to its general colonization had there been no more potent causes.

But early in 1848 particles of gold were discovered in ground that was being turned up for the construction of a mill in the Sacramento valley, about forty miles up the Sacramento, at a place known as Sutter's Fort. At a considerable distance from this place, higher up, Captain Sutter, desirous of erecting a sawmill, contracted for that purpose with a Mr. Marshall in September, 1847. When completed, and the water was let on to the wheel, the tail-race was found to be too narrow to allow the water to escape with sufficient rapidity. To save labor, Mr. Marshall let the water directly into the race with a strong current, so as to wash it wider and deeper. He effected his purpose, and a large bed of mud and gravel was carried to the foot of the race.

One day Mr. Marshall, as he was walking down the race to this deposit of mud, observed some glittering particles at its upper edge. He gathered a few, examined them, and became satisfied of their value. Repairing to the fort, he made known the discovery to Captain Sutter and his impressions of its importance. Such were the circumstances which led to the discovery of gold in that region. Soon after other discoveries of gold were made, and in 1849 occurred the great rush of gold-seekers to that country. Within a year's time the population of California was large enough to warrant its erection into a State, and it was soon thus admitted as a free State.

Iowa was admitted to the Union as a free State in December, 1846, and Wisconsin in May, 1848. Oregon was organized as a Territory. The Mormon metropolis of Salt Lake City was founded, and rapidly grew in size and wealth. Mr. Polk's administration also witnessed the beginning of the great Irish immigration to this country, following the disastrous famine in that country.

CLOSE OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

The administration of Mr. Polk was signalized by many interesting and important events. Yet it cannot be said to have been popular, even with the party to which he owed his elevation. Towards the close of his term few, if any, seriously advocated his re-election. At a Democratic convention held in Baltimore May 21, 1848, Lewis Cass, of Michigan, was nominated for the presidency and General W. O. Butler, of Kentucky, for the vice-presidency.

In June following (7th) a Whig national convention was held in Philadelphia for a similar purpose. The principal candidates were Henry

Clay, of Kentucky, General Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, and General Winfield Scott, of New Jersey. The result of several ballotings was the nomination of General Taylor, who, of the 280 votes cast, received 170. Mr. Clay had 32 and General Scott 63. Millard Fillmore, of New York, was nominated for the vice-presidency.

THE FREE SOIL PARTY.

In the Baltimore Democratic convention the State of New York was not represented. Two separate sets of delegates, from two separate conventions held in that State, were present, and each claimed seats; and, while a portion of the convention were inclined to admit one set and exclude the other, and some were in favor of the admission of both, it was at length decided to exclude both. In consequence of this exclusion, the Free-Soil party adopted measures to convene another convention, which met at Utica, and nominated Martin Van Buren. The object of this party was twofold—to defeat Mr. Cass, and next to lay the foundation for organizing a Free Soil party, designed ultimately to gain a political ascendancy in the United States.

During the summer following the friends of the respective candidates were not idle. While their efforts were not characterized by the enthusiasm and intemperance of some former electioneering campaigns, no probable means of success were omitted. Conventions were held, speeches were made, pamphlets circulated, political agents itinerated the country, and the press, as usual, gave currency to every good and evil report, as suited its political taste and interests.

At length, in November, the election was held, and resulted in the choice of a majority of electors friendly to the election of General Taylor. On the 14th of February 1849, the votes of the several colleges were opened and counted, agreeably to the Constitution, in the presence of both houses of Congress, when it appeared that the whole number of votes given was 290, of which General Taylor received 163, and, accordingly, was declared to be elected. Millard Fillmore, having a like number of votes for the vice-presidency, was so proclaimed. Lewis Cass and General W. O. Butler had each 127 votes for the respective offices for which they were nominated. Mr. Van Buren failed to receive the vote of a single State.

CHAPTER XXIII.

First Sikh War—Great Battle of Ferozeshah—The Second Sikh War—The Irish Famine—Abolition of the Corn Laws—Break-up of the Tory Party—Emigration from Ireland—Smith O'Brien's Insurrection—End of Chartism—The Spanish Marriages—Discontent in France—Beginning the Revolution—The King's Surrender—The Republic Proclaimed—Rise of the Mob—Organizing the Republic—Louis Napoleon, President of France—Affairs in Germany—The Revolutionary Era—Concessions in Prussia—The Oppression of Italy—Awakening of the Italians—Throwing off the Austrian Yoke—The Suppression of Lombardy—The Pope Flees from Rome—Revolution in Austria—Hungary—War Threatened in Vienna—War with Hungary—"King Bomba"—Reaction in Prussia.

IN 1845 the British became involved in a war with the sole remaining State of India which had preserved its full independence. For nearly fifty years the Punjaub had formed a powerful kingdom under the Sikh despot Runjit Singh, a man of genius, who had formed his co-religionists into an invincible army, with which he conquered his Mohamedan neighbors and held down all India north of the Sutlej. Knowing the might of Britain, he had always kept on the most friendly terms with the East India Company, but when he died, in 1839, trouble ensued. The proud and fanatical army which he had created would obey no meaner masters, and Runjit Singh's successors perished, the victims of military mutinies or palace conspiracies. Quite contrary to the will of their nominal rulers, the Sikh troops resolved to attack the British, hoping to take Delhi and conquer the whole peninsula. They were, for a moment, not far from succeeding, and if their leaders had been capable and loyal to each other the consequences of their adventure might have been tremendous.

In December, 1845, they crossed the Sutlej into British territory with 60,000 men, and found themselves confronted by a much smaller army hastily gathered together by Lord Hardinge, the Governor-General.

He entrusted his troops to Sir Hugh Gough, a hot-headed old soldier, whose only tactics consisted in hurling his infantry straight at the enemy and endeavoring to sweep them away with one desperate charge. This sort of attack answered well enough against ordinary Indian troops, but the Sikhs were made of sterner stuff. The fighting with them was very desperate; no less than five pitched battles were fought between December 18, 1845, and February 10, 1846.

GREAT BATTLE AT FEROZESHAH.

The crucial struggle was at Ferozeshah, where Gough's headlong courage failed on the first day to force the Sikh lines; his Sepoy battalions flinched, and his European regiments suffered the most frightful losses. Next day he resumed the struggle; but the enemy, whose losses had also been tremendous, had not the heart to face two pitched battles on successive days, and sullenly retired. The campaign terminated at Sobraon (February 10th), when Gough had to storm a circular entrenched position with the Sutlej at its back. Leading his troops forward, with his customary impetuosity, he saw them driven back from assault after assault. But finally the Sikhs ungarnished one front of their works, while reinforcing the rest; a British column penetrated into the gap, and the gallant enemy were finally driven into the Sutlej, where thousands perished when their bridge of boats broke down. Ten days later the British army appeared in front of Lahore, and the Sikh Government asked for terms. The British recognized the young Rajah Dhuleep Singh as the successor of Runjit Singh; but he was ordered to pay a heavy fine, to cut his army down to 30,000 men, and to surrender the south-eastern corner of his dominions, where they reached nearest to Delhi.

THE SECOND SIKH WAR.

But the spirit of the Sikhs was not yet broken; they looked upon themselves not as beaten, but as betrayed by incompetent generals, and were quite ready to try the fortune of war once more. Only two years after Sobraon (March, 1848), Moolraj, the Governor of Mooltan, massacred some British officers, and appealed to the old army to take the field once more and throw off the foreign yoke. The whole Punjaub at once blazed up into insurrection, and the work of 1846 had to be repeated. Unhappily for the British troops, they were still under the command of

the headstrong Gough, who showed that he had learned nothing from experience. After two checks, into which his rashness led him, in the autumn of 1848, he brought the main Sikh army into action at Chillianwallah. There he delivered a frontal attack on an enemy screened by a jungle and covered by a tremendous fire of artillery. Some of the British brigades were almost blown to pieces, but the valor of the survivors evicted the Sikhs from their lines, and Chillianwallah counts as a victory (January 11, 1849).

But the war was really settled by the decisive action of Goojerat (February 6th), where, for once, Gough was persuaded to allow his artillery to batter the enemy's lines before the infantry was let loose. Shaken by the fire of eighty heavy guns the Sikhs broke when the attack was delivered, and the British won the field with small loss—a great contrast to their sufferings at Ferozeshah and Chillianwallah. A month later the whole Sikh army laid down its arms, and the Punjaub was annexed in March, 1849. The problem of its settlement appeared likely to be so difficult that picked men were drafted in from all the presidencies to take up the task, their chief being the administrator, Sir John Lawrence. The work was so well done that the new province settled down into great quiet and content, and when, eight years later, the Sepoy mutiny broke out, the British were able to enlist their old enemies of the Sikh army by the thousand to put down the rebels of Delhi and Oude.

THE IRISH FAMINE.

Sir Robert Peel's later years of office as Prime Minister of England (1845-6) were made unhappy by a domestic calamity of appalling violence—the unfortunate potato famine in Ireland. In other countries the complete destruction of the potato crop by blight in two successive years would have caused nothing more than serious inconvenience. But in Ireland half the nation depended on the root. The population had been multiplying with great rapidity; in thirty years it had risen from five to eight millions, and this not owing to flourishing trade or manufactures, or to any great increase in the amount of land cultivated. The landlords had been permitting their tenants to cut up their farms into smaller and smaller patches, till an average holding did not suffice to support its occupier, who had to make up the deficit by seeking harvest work in England during the summer. Several millions of people were living on



1855—STORMING OF THE "MALAKOFF"—CRIMEAN WAR



1855—PROJECTORS OF THE FIRST TRANS-ATLANTIC CABLES

these wretched patches of ground, always on the edge of starvation, and sustained only by their potatoes. On such an indigent population two years of blight brought absolute famine. Before the disaster was fully realized thousands had perished from actual hunger, or from the fevers and dysentery following bad and insufficient food. The workhouses were crammed till they could hold no more, and out-door relief did not yet exist in Ireland. Far too late the Government began to establish public soup-kitchens, and pour in food of all kinds. But it was long before relief could penetrate to out-of-the-way districts, and the famine was prolonged for many months.

ABOLITION OF THE CORN LAWS.

Sir Robert Peel, deeply impressed by the horrors of the situation, came to the conclusion that the best remedy would be the abolition of the protective duties on home-grown corn, which rendered difficult in such crises the importation of foreign food. After much thought, he resolved to introduce a bill providing for the abolition of the Corn Laws in 1849, and introducing for the three intervening years a low scale of duties. This bold step caused immediate division in the Tory camp. The great land-owners, who formed such a large and powerful section of the party, were convinced that free trade in corn meant the ruin of English agriculture, and many of them resolved to follow Peel no longer. Several of his colleagues in the Cabinet resigned, and many scores of members in the Commons announced that they should vote against their great chief's bill. The discontented faction was headed by Lord George Bentinck and Benjamin Disraeli, the latter of whom now first appeared prominently in politics. He was the son of a Jewish man of letters, and had hitherto been regarded as little more than an ingenious charlatan, though his somewhat bombastic and turgid novels showed plenty of cleverness and wit. Now, by organizing the opponents of Peel into a solid body, he showed that he could do something in practical politics.

BREAK-UP OF THE TORY PARTY.

The repeal of the Corn Laws was carried by Peel only with the assistance of the votes of his opponents, the Whigs, by 337 votes to 240, the minority including two-thirds of the Tory party (May 16, 1846). Two months later the Protectionists took their revenge on their former

chief by uniting with the Whigs to throw out a bill intended to put down agrarian crime in Ireland (July, 1846). Peel at once resigned. His enlightened and courageous action with regard to the Corn Laws had not only doomed him to sit in opposition for the rest of his life, but had hopelessly broken up the Conservative party. It was now divided into two irreconcilable sections, for Peel could not forgive the rebels who had turned him out of office, while the Protectionists looked upon him as a traitor, who had cast away one of the main planks of the party platform. Such hard words had passed between them that they could not easily forgive each other. Hence it is not strange that the Conservatives were destined never to enjoy a real Parliamentary majority again for nearly thirty years.

Meanwhile the Whigs returned to office under Lord John Russell, the introducer of the Reform Bill of 1832, an adroit party politician, full of buoyant self-confidence, but not a man of any great mark or originality. Palmerston, a much more notable figure, resumed his place at the Foreign Office, which he was now to hold without any appreciable break for twenty years more, till his death in 1865. The new government had to take over two troublesome legacies from their predecessors, the Irish famine and the still lingering Chartist agitation.

EMIGRATION FROM IRELAND.

In dealing with the former they did not show themselves much more effective than the Conservatives. There was still a vast mortality from fever and dysentery in 1846, which might have been prevented by really active measures of relief. In the following year, when the stress of the famine was over, the Irish landlords tried to free themselves from the danger of such another disaster by suddenly reversing their former policy of multiplying small tenants on diminutive holdings. They began at once to consolidate the small farms into large ones by evicting their weakest and poorest tenants. This process was carried out in many cases with inconsiderate haste and reckless cruelty, families which had been brought low by the famine being cast out on the roadside by thousands. The greater part of them ultimately struggled across the Atlantic to the United States. The policy was the correct one from the point of view of economy, but it was worked out with inexcusable disregard for the sufferings of the evicted.

SMITH O'BRIEN'S INSURRECTION.

The general indignation felt for the clearances of 1847 was the main cause of the Irish rising of 1848. A large body of O'Connell's former followers had some years before seceded from him, because they insisted that armed rebellion was justifiable, while he had been all for peaceful agitation. Now they struck their blow, and proved themselves (July 1848) utterly unable to do anything serious. Smith O'Brien, an enthusiastic and well-meaning member of Parliament, was their chosen leader, and proved a most incompetent general and organizer. He collected 2000 armed men, but his campaign ended in a ludicrous fiasco, the "Army of the Irish Republic" being dispersed by fifty constables after a scuffle in a cabbage-garden near Bonlagh, in Tipperary. Smith O'Brien and the other chiefs were tried and condemned for high treason, but the Government wisely and mercifully gave them no further punishment than a few years deportation to the Colonies, and granted them "tickets-of-leave" long ere their sentence was out.

END OF CHARTISM.

The end of the Chartist agitation had fallen a few weeks before the Irish rising, and had been equally ignominious. The London Chartists, having resolved to march on the Houses of Parliament and present a monster petition for the "six points," were forbidden to approach Westminster. They declared their intention of forcing their way thither, but the Government called out the troops, and 200,000 special constables answered the appeal for civil aid. Hearing of this army ready to meet them, the Chartists very wisely, but rather tamely, went home, after sending their vast petition to the Commons in three cabs. The fact that April 14, 1848, was a very rainy day seems to have had a good deal to do with this absurd fiasco.

THE SPANISH MARRIAGES.

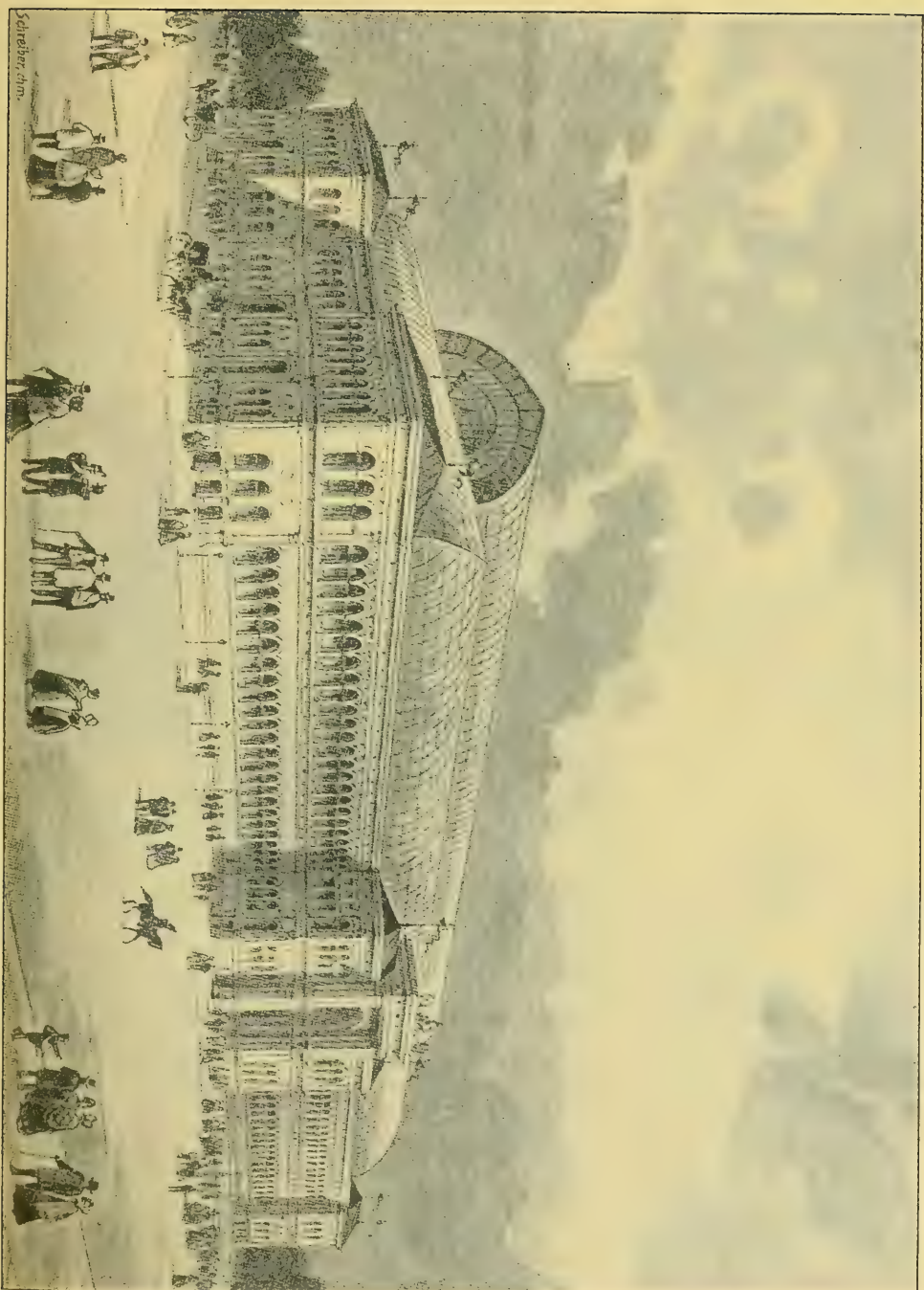
Meantime France was steadily verging toward another revolution. Discontent with Louis Philippe was growing apace. Louis Napoleon escaped from the prison fortress of Ham in May, 1846, and renewed his intrigues with some success. The scandalous conduct of Louis Philippe in the matter of the "Spanish marriages" alienated the sympathy and support of Great Britain and caused much criticism at home.

French influence was now preponderant in Spain, and Louis Philippe determined to seize the opportunity of gratifying his dynastic ambition. The great question of the day was to find a husband for the young Queen. The interests of England were directly opposed to any marriage which might give the Spanish crown to a French prince. Louis Philippe did not venture to propose a direct alliance with Isabella, but he determined to find a husband for her who would not be likely to have children, and to marry her younger sister, Maria Louisa, to his own son, the Duke of Montpensier.

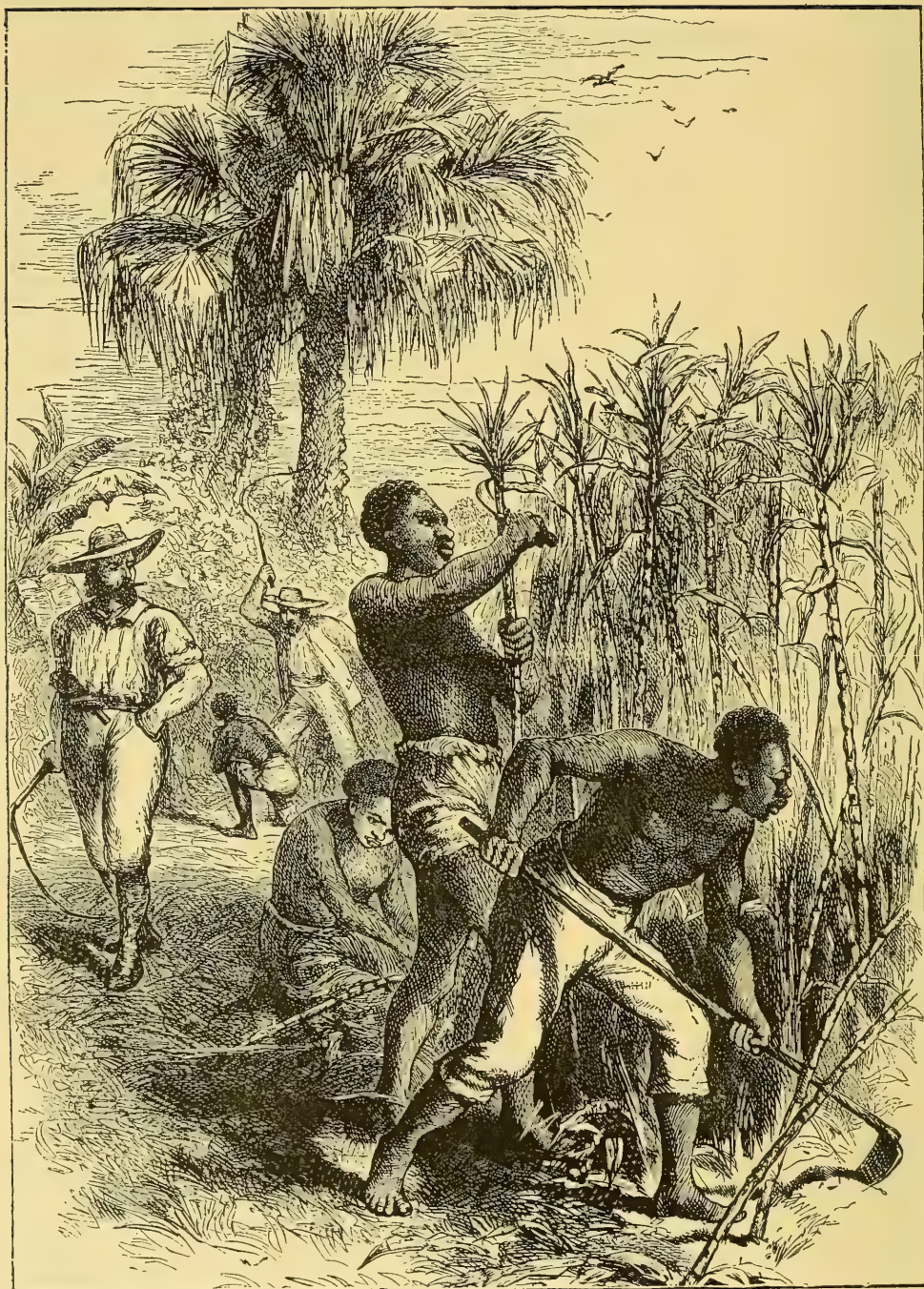
This scandalously immoral scheme had the complete approval of Christina. In 1845 Louis Philippe had promised Queen Victoria in a personal interview at Eu, that his son's marriage should not take place until Isabella had given birth to an heir. But the King's honor was weaker than his ambition. On the 10th of October, 1846, the Spanish Queen was married to her cousin, Francis of Assis, a husband who satisfied the required conditions, and on the very same day the Duke of Montpensier married Maria Louisa. Public opinion in Europe was profoundly scandalized by a transaction which must always remain a blot upon the character both of Louis Philippe and of M. Guizot. England was bitterly aggrieved, and although no open rupture took place, the English Government was completely alienated from the Orleanist dynasty, which thus lost its firmest support at a time when it was most in need of it. And the intrigue had not even the scanty justification of success. Isabella gave birth to a daughter in 1851, whose paternity was more than doubtful, and before that time Louis Philippe had forfeited the French throne.

DISCONTENT IN FRANCE.

During the winter of 1847-48 numerous political reform banquets were held throughout France; and the omission of the King's health from the list of toasts on these occasions was a circumstance that added much to the jealousy with which these displays were regarded by the Government. The leaders of the opposition having announced that reform banquets would be held throughout France on the 22d of February, 1848, Washington's birthday, on the evening preceding the 22d, the Administration forbade the intended meeting in Paris, and made extensive military preparations to suppress it if it were attempted, and to crush at once any attempt at insurrection. In the Chamber of Deputies, then



1855—PARIS INDUSTRIAL FAIR



1856—SLAVES WORKING ON A SOUTHERN PLANTATION

in session, this arbitrary measure of government was warmly discussed, when the opposition members, consenting to give up the meeting for the morrow, concurred in the plan of moving an impeachment of Ministers, with the expectation of obtaining either a change of Cabinet, or a dissolution of the Chamber and a new election, which would test the sense of the nation.

BEGINNING THE REVOLUTION.

On the morning of the 22d the opposition papers announced that the banquet would be deferred, when the orders for the troops of the line to occupy the place of intended meeting were countermanded, and pickets only were stationed in a few places ; but no serious disturbances were anticipated, either by the Ministry or its opponents. The announcement of the opposition journals, however, came too late ; and at noon a large concourse, chiefly of the working classes, had assembled around the Church of the Madeleine, where the procession was to have been organized. But the multitude exhibited no symptoms of disorder, and were dispersed by the municipal cavalry without any loss of life. In the evening, however, disturbances began. Gunsmiths' shops were broken open, barricades were formed, lamps extinguished, the guards were attacked, the streets were filled with troops, and appearances indicated a sanguinary strife on the morrow.

At an early hour on Wednesday, February 23d, crowds again appeared in the streets, barricades were erected, and some skirmishing ensued, in which a few persons were killed. Numbers of the National Guard also made their appearance, and a portion of them having declared for reform, sent their colonel to the King to acquaint His Majesty with their wishes. He immediately acceded to their requests, dismissed the Guizot Cabinet, and requested Count Mole to form a new ministry. This measure produced a momentary calm, but the rioters continued to traverse the streets, often attacking, and sometimes disarming, the municipal guards. Between 10 and 11 o'clock in the evening, a crowd passing the office of Foreign Affairs, was suddenly fired upon by the troops, with fatal effect. The people fled in consternation, but their thirst for revenge was aroused, and the cry, "To arms! Down with the assassins! Down with Louis Philippe! Down with the Bourbons!" resounded throughout Paris.

THE KING'S SURRENDER.

The attempt to establish a Mole administration having failed, the King, late at night, sent for M. Thiers, and entrusted to him the formation of a ministry that should be acceptable to the people; and on the following morning, the 24th, a proclamation to the citizens of Paris announced that M. Thiers and Odillon Barrot had been appointed ministers; that orders had been given the troops to cease firing and retire to their quarters; that the Chamber would be dissolved and an appeal made to the people, and that General Lamoriciere had been appointed commandant of the National Guards. The order to the troops to retire, causing the resignation of their commander, Marshal Bugeaud, after a protest against the measure, was a virtual surrender on the part of the Government of the means of defence; and the King and royal family soon found themselves at the mercy of an excited populace. The troops quietly allowed themselves to be disarmed by the mob, who then, to the number of 20,000, and accompanied by the National Guard, directed their course to the Palace Royal and the Tuileries, and demanded the abdication of the King. In the course of the day the King signed an abdication in favor of his grandson, the young Count of Paris; but before this fact was generally known the armed populace broke into the palace, made a bonfire of the royal carriages and furniture, and after having carried the throne of the state reception room in triumph through the streets, burned that also. Meanwhile the ex-King and Queen escaped to St. Cloud, whence they pursued their way to Versailles, and thence to Dreux, from which latter place they escaped in disguise to England, whither they were followed by M. Guizot and other members of the late ministry.

THE REPUBLIC PROCLAIMED.

On the day of the King's abdication the Chamber of Deputies assembled, but being overwhelmed by the crowd, the greatest confusion prevailed, and amid shouts of "No King! Long live the Republic!" the members of the provisional government were named and adopted by popular acclamation. Although a majority of the deputies seemed opposed to the establishment of a republic, and it was by no means certain that there was any great party out of Paris in its favor, every attempt to adjourn the question was the signal for renewed shouts and

disorder ; and amid the turbulent demonstrations of the Parisian populace the French Republic was adopted and proclaimed to the nation. Royalty had vanished almost without a struggle—blown away by the breath of an urban tumult—and the strangest revolution of modern times was consummated.

¹ The leading member of the provisional government was M. Lamar-tine, to whom belongs the renown of saving the country from almost immediate anarchy. By his noble and fervid eloquence the passions of the mob were calmed, and by his prompt and judicious measures, among the first of which was the declaration of the abolition of capital punishment for political offenses, tranquillity and confidence were at once restored. On the 26th the Bank of France re-opened, the public departments resumed their duties ; and with unparalleled unanimity the army, the clergy, the press and the people, in the provinces as well as in Paris, immediately gave in their adhesion to the new Republic.

RISE OF THE MOB.

On the 15th of May the National Assembly was surrounded by the populace, led by Barbes, Planqui, Hubert and other Communist leaders, who, after having driven the deputies from their seats, and assumed the functions of government, proclaimed themselves the National Executive Committee, and through Barbes, one of their number, declared that a contribution of 1,000,000,000 francs should be levied on the rich for the benefit of the poor ; that a tax of another 1,000,000,000 francs should be raised for the benefit of Poland ; that the National Assembly should be dissolved, and finally, that the guillotine should be put in operation against the enemies of the country. But in the meantime the National Guard was called out, the rioters were soon dispersed, their leaders arrested, and the provisional government reinstated.

Owing to the fear of another demonstration against the Government, the full command of all the troops was given to General Cavaignac, the Minister of War ; and all the approaches to the National Assembly and all ministers' apartments were strongly guarded. In June, the Government finding the burdens imposed on the public treasury too heavy to be borne, determined to send out of Paris to the provinces about 12,000 of the workmen then unprofitably employed in the national workshops. This was the signal of alarm. Disturbances began on the

evening of the 22d ; on the 23d the most active preparations were made by both parties for the coming contest, and some blood was shed at the barricades erected by the insurgents. At 1 o'clock on Saturday morning, the 24th, General Cavaignac declared Paris in a state of siege, and the struggle began in earnest. From that hour until 4 o'clock in the afternoon, when the insurgents were driven from the left bank of the Seine, the musketry and cannonade were incessant, and Paris was a vast battlefield. The fight was renewed at an early hour on Sunday morning, and continued during most of the day, and it was not till noon on Monday that the struggle was terminated by the unconditional surrender of the last body of the insurgents. The number killed and wounded in this insurrection—by far the most terrible that had ever desolated Paris—was never known ; but 5000 is not a high estimate.

ORGANIZING THE REPUBLIC.

The exertions and success of General Cavaignac in defending the Government procured for him a vote of thanks from the Assembly, and the unanimous appointment of temporary Chief Executive of the Nation, with the power of appointing his Ministers. Many of the leaders of the insurrection, among them Louis Blanc and Caussidiere, fled from the country ; a small number of those taken with arms in their hands were condemned to transportation ; but the great majority, after a short confinement, were set at liberty. The Assembly in the meantime proceeded with its task of constructing the new constitution, which was adopted on the 4th of November, 1848, by a vote of 739 in its favor and 30 in opposition. It declared that the French Nation had adopted the Republican form of government, with one Legislative Assembly, and that the executive power should be vested in a President, to be elected by universal suffrage, for a term of four years. Its principles were declared to be liberty, equality and fraternity ; and the basis on which it rested—family, labor, property and public order.

LOUIS NAPOLEON, PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.

The Republican candidate for President was Cavaignac, who had given conclusive proofs of his honesty and of his ability to rule. But he had alienated the socialists by his conduct in the June rising ; he was regarded with jealousy by many of his fellow-officers ; and his very devo

tion to the republic told against him among those who cared less for Democratic equality than for the protection of their property. His most formidable rival was Louis Napoleon, who had been elected to the Assembly in September by five departments. This time no opposition was made to his return to France, and he took his seat as Deputy for the Department of the Seine. Little was known of him but the futile conspiracies of Strasburg and Boulogne, but his name was a charm to conjure with. Thanks to Thiers and other writers the memory of the first Napoleon had come to be almost worshipped in France. The peasants and soldiers believed that the rule of another Napoleon would secure their prosperity and their glory. The Orleanists also supported him, in the belief that they could use him as their instrument to effect the restoration of the July monarchy, but events proved that their confidence in his incapacity were ill-founded. Among the other candidates were Ledru-Rollin, Raspail, the champion of the advanced Socialists, and Lamartine, whose popularity had declined as rapidly as it had arisen. From the first commencement of the voting the result was a foregone conclusion. The recorded votes numbered nearly seven millions and a half. Of these Louis Napoleon received 5,434,226, and Cavaignac only 1,443,107. Ledru-Rollin came next with 370,119, and the other candidates received hardly any support. On December 20th the President took the prescribed oath to observe the constitution, and entered upon the official residence in the palace of the Elysee.

AFFAIRS IN GERMANY.

The history of Germany is almost a complete blank between the revolutionary movements of 1830 and 1848. The Bund, the only representative of German unity, was a hopeless inert mass which did nothing but oppose a passive resistance to reform. The sub-division into innumerable petty States was maintained by the overwhelming influence of Russia, which was always exerted to prevent an aggrandizement of Prussia or Austria. These two States, which absorbed most of the material strength of Germany, regarded each other with a jealousy that made the Czar the necessary arbitrator between them. In Austria, Francis I had been succeeded in 1835 by his son, Ferdinand I, but the change of rulers only gave greater power to Metternich, who continued with cynical obstinacy to maintain the antiquated system of government, which was

ready to fall at the first touch. In 1837 the death of William IV separated England from Hanover and the latter crown, from which females were excluded, fell to Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland. The first act of the new King was to abolish the Constitution of 1833, and to dismiss seven Gottingen professors who protested against the arbitrary measure. In 1840 Frederick William IV succeeded his father in Prussia, but he did little to alter the system that had pervaded in Berlin since 1815. The last relic of Polish independence was done away with in 1846, when the Republic of Krakau, on the pretext of insurrection, was incorporated with Austria.

THE REVOLUTIONARY ERA.

In March, 1848, the revolutionary wave broke over Germany with such force that resistance was hardly dreamed of. Rulers hastened to secure their thrones by granting all the demands of their subjects, and by admitting to office the men who had hitherto been the prominent leaders of opposition. The Constitution of Baden, March 3d, was the model which was copied in the other States. Its chief points were the freedom of the press, trial by jury, political equality of all creeds, responsibility of Ministers, abolition of feudal obligations, and equal taxation. Everywhere the people agitated for these or similar reforms, and everywhere they were granted. No day passed without the appearance of a new constitution. In Darmstadt, Nassau, Hesse-Cassel, Oldenburg, Brunswick, the four Hanse Towns, Weimar, and Wurtemberg, the outlines of the story are so similar that the details become insignificant. Only the three great middle States, Saxony, Bavaria and Hanover, delayed their action to see what was done by their two powerful neighbors.

The news of the events in Paris was enough in itself to overturn the ill-cemented edifice of the Austrian State. The Hungarians, inspired by the eloquence of Kossuth, clamored for an independent diet and diminished taxes. Similar demands were made in Prague. The populace of Vienna, usually so contented and pleasure loving, demanded the dismissal of Metternich. Without an effort at resistance the famous diplomatist fled to England, and the Austrian Government was left to the direction of the mob. The feeble Ferdinand I granted freedom to the press, allowed the formation of a citizen guard, and promised a liberal constitution.

CONCESSIONS IN PRUSSIA.

In Prussia Frederick William IV offered a stubborn resistance to the demands for constitutional liberties which arrived from all parts of his kingdom, and especially from the Rhenish provinces. But the report of the occurrences in Vienna led to formidable disturbances in Berlin and made concessions unavoidable. On March 17th the King promised freedom to the press, the summons of a Landtag on April 2d, the "transformation of the German Confederation (Statenbund) into a Federal State (Bundestat)," and the incorporation of East and West Prussia and Posen in the Bund. Liberal as these assurances were they failed to satisfy the people, who now clamored for the dismissal of the soldiers from the town and the formation of a new guard. On March 18th the mob came into collision with the troops, barricades were raised, and for fourteen hours a terrible battle was waged in the streets of Berlin. At last the King gave way, ordered the troops to withdraw, dismissed his Ministry, and granted an unconditional amnesty to all political prisoners. His brother William, Prince of Prussia, who was regarded as a leader of the reactionary party, departed to England. From this moment Frederick William determined to put himself at the head of the Liberal movement, and thus to satisfy the party which desired to see Prussia at the head of a united Germany. He assumed the German colors and issued a proclamation, in which he undertook, as a constitutional King, to be the "leader of a free and new-born German Nation" (March 21st). Two days later he had to attend with bare head the funeral of the 183 victims of the 18th of March. But the memory of that day stood between him and the realization of his new aims, and Prussia had, for the moment, lost all popularity and respect in Germany. Besides domestic revolutions, Germany had a difficult question to deal with in the relations of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein with Denmark. Both contained a large German population, and Holstein was a member of the Bund. Both were hostile to Danish rule, and were indignant at the attempts to destroy their independent nationality and to incorporate them with Denmark.

THE OPPRESSION OF ITALY.

No part of Europe was so quiet and at the same time so profoundly discontented as Italy in the first years of the fifth decade of the century. Austrian rule pressed like a leaden weight upon the provinces of Lom-

bardy and Venetia. A powerful army, under Marshal Radetsky, stood ready to crush the slightest symptom of revolt. The press was subject to the most rigorous censorship, and so searching was the system of espionage that no one ventured to breathe a word of complaint. The upper classes were purposely encouraged to lead a licentious life, that they might lose all thought of a political liberty. In the other provinces Austrian influence was supreme, and was employed to support the arbitrary government of the Princes. In Naples and Sicily Ferdinand II (1830-1859) crushed his subjects under a despotism of terror. In the Papal States Gregory XVI (1831-1846) maintained the worst of all forms of government, the absolutism of the clergy. Leopold II, of Tuscany, was personally benevolent and well-intentioned, but did not venture to depart from the system of rule prescribed from Vienna. The lesser rulers of Modena, Parma and Lucca, were the powerless vassals of Austria. In Piedmont Charles Albert had never ventured to return to the liberal principles of his youth.

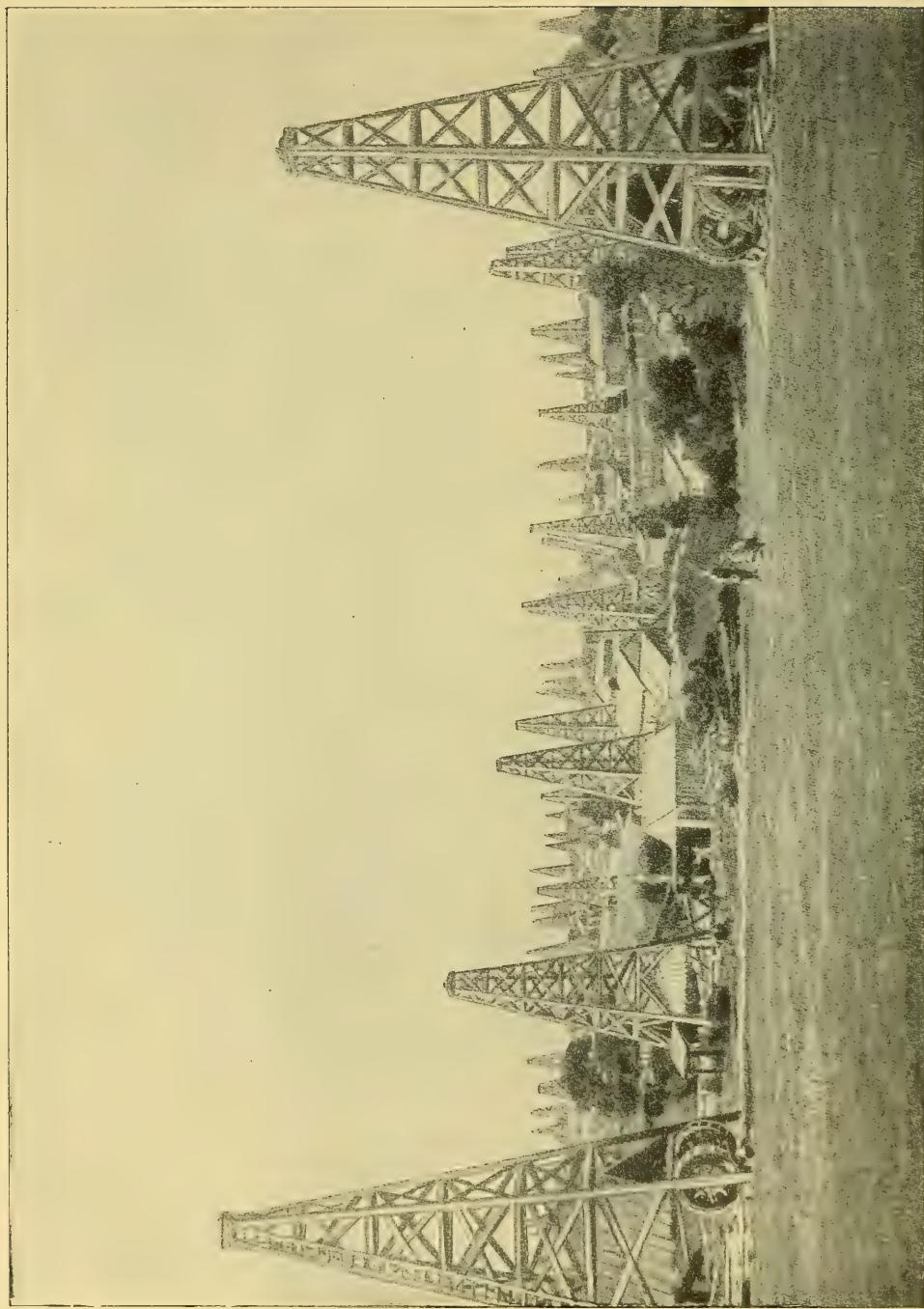
This lethargy was suddenly interrupted from a wholly unexpected quarter. In June, 1846, Gregory XVI died, and the choice of the conclave fell upon one of the youngest Cardinals, Mastai Ferretti, who took the name of Pius IX. The new Pope was chosen mainly on account of his feeble health, but he was destined to the longest and one of the most eventful pontificates recorded in history. Eager to obtain popularity, Pius IX signalized his accession by reforming measures which made a profound impression in Europe. He issued an amnesty for all political offenders, recalled the exiles, and appointed a council to aid him in the Government. Italy resounded with cries of "Evviva Pio Nono," and the Pope became, for a brief period, the idol of his countrymen.

AWAKENING OF THE ITALIANS.

The example of the Pope naturally exercised great influence in the other Italian States. Leopold of Tuscany hastened to conciliate the people with administrative reforms. Charles Louis of Lucca was compelled to make similar concessions, but he showed his personal antipathy by selling his duchy to the Grand Duke of Tuscany and retiring from public life. Intense popular indignation was aroused by the settlement of the succession in Parma on the death of Maria Louisa (December, 1847). The Congress of Vienna had arranged that if she died childless



1857—"GREAT EASTERN" LAYING THE FIRST TRANS-ATLANTIC CABLE



1859—PETROLEUM WELLS OPENED IN PENNSYLVANIA

Parma should be given to the Duke of Lucca, whose duchy was to be transferred to Tuscany, while the latter was to cede certain districts to the Duke of Modena. This elaborate arrangement based altogether upon dynastic interests, without any regard to the wishes of the people concerned, was now carried out. Riots ensued, and Francis V of Modena invited the Austrians to occupy his duchy. In Southern Italy the movement was more violent in proportion to the evils it had to combat. Sicily threw off the Neapolitan yoke, and a provisional government was established at Palermo, under Riggiero Settimo (January 24, 1848). A rising in Naples forced Ferdinand II to dismiss his ministers and to grant a liberal constitution (February 10th). The scruples of Charles Albert were removed when he found himself on the same side as the Pope, and early in 1848 he drew up a constitution for Piedmont, the *Statuto Fondamentale*, which was issued on March 4th. In Tuscany representative institutions were granted on February 17th, and the revolution in Paris induced Pius IX to take the final step, to which his previous measures had obviously tended. A ministry was formed under Cardinal Antonelli, in which for the first time the lay element predominated, and a constitution was promulgated on March 14th. This established two chambers—one composed of nominees of the Pope, and the other of popular representatives; but the final decisions on all matters was still reserved to the College of Cardinals.

THROWING OFF THE AUSTRIAN YOKE.

When the news arrived of the Viennese rising of March 13, 1848, and the flight of Metternich, the flame of revolt at once broke out in the northern provinces. The lead was taken by Milan, where the citizens erected barricades, and for four days carried on a desperate contest against the Austrian troops. Radetsky might have destroyed the city by a bombardment, but he was afraid lest a sudden advance of the Sardinian army might cut off his communications with Austria. On the evening of the 22d he quitted Milan and retreated towards the famous Quadrilateral formed by the fortresses of Peschiera, Mantua, Legnago and Verona. His retreat was the signal for a general rising. The Duke of Parma fled without striking a blow. One after another—Monza, Como, Bergamo, Brescia and Cremona—threw off the rule of Austria. Venice was tamely resigned by Counts Palffy and Zichy, and the citizens restored

the Republic under the presidency of Daniele Manin. Francis V of Modena was driven from his duchy. Meanwhile Charles Albert had taken a decisive step. He declared war against Austria, crossed the Ticino with his army (March 25th), and proceeded to pursue the retreating Austrians. Radetsky now took up his quarters at Verona and stood upon the defensive. Popular enthusiasm compelled the remaining governments of the peninsula to espouse the national cause. The Grand Duke of Tuscany ordered his troops to march to the frontier. Pius IX, torn by his conflicting interests as an Italian Prince, and as head of the Roman Catholic Church, found it impossible to resist the general impulse, and the Roman army was dispatched to the Po. Even Ferdinand II did not yet venture to obey his natural inclinations. The Neapolitan army set out under Pepe, the fleet was sent to Ancona, and Charles Albert was assured that Naples would co-operate actively in the war for Italian independence. But it was afterwards discovered that both the army and the fleet had received secret instructions to do nothing until the course of events had enabled the King to decide finally on his course of action. Ferdinand's insincerity was soon made manifest. In defiance of his solemn oath to observe the constitution, he dissolved the Chamber of Deputies before it had time to meet, formed a reactionary ministry, recalled his army, and declared a complete change of the franchise. In consequence of these measures the Sicilians declared that the Bourbons had forfeited the crown, and prepared to offer the crown to the Duke of Genoa, the second son of Charles Albert.

THE SUPPRESSION OF LOMBARDY.

The Sardinian King had continued for some time to retain his advantage in the Lombard war. Radetsky refused to be drawn from his position at Verona until the arrival of reinforcements should enable him to take the aggressive. The result was that the Sardinian troops were able to overrun the country as far as the Adige, and a momentary repulse at Santa Lucia (May 6th) was more than compensated by a distinguished success at Goito (May 30th) and by the capture of Perchiera. Popular votes decreed the annexation of Lombardy, Modena and Parma to Sardinia. That these bright prospects were soon overcrowded was probably due to the error of Charles Albert himself. If he had at once advanced against Radetsky at the end of March he might have finished

the war at one blow. But he was afraid of the Nationalists, who might utilize his victories to his own disadvantage. He was not cordially supported by the other rulers of the peninsula, and he trusted that English mediation and the rising in Hungary would compel Austria to cede Lombardy to him without further warfare. His hesitation secured the success of Radetsky, whose retreat, instead of being a sign of weakness, was a masterly stroke of policy. Strengthened by reinforcements under Welden, he suddenly left Verona, captured Vicenza, Treviso and Padua, and thus secured a second and safer line of communication with Austria. Turning against the Piedmontese, he inflicted a crushing defeat upon them at Custozza (July 25th). Charles Albert retreated to Milan, closely pursued and harassed by the victorious army. Milan capitulated without striking a blow, and the last chance of retaining any hold upon Lombardy was gone. On August 8th Charles Albert signed an armistice by which he surrendered Peschiera and the positions outside Lombardy, and engaged to withdraw the ships and troops that had been sent to the assistance of Venice. Lombardy was once more an Austrian province, and Radetsky prepared to complete his work by laying siege on Venice.

THE POPE FLEES FROM ROME.

Pius IX had already deserted the Italian cause when he discovered that it involved him in open war with Austria. From that time he began to think more of his duties as the head of the church and less of temporal interests. The result was that he soon lost the popularity that his Liberal measures had given him. His reforming Ministry naturally resigned when the Pope would no longer assent to their measures. Count Rossi, who became head of a new Ministry, alienated both the Liberal and the Reactionary parties, and was assassinated on November 15th. The Pope was so horrified by this act that he quitted Rome in disguise (November 24th) and took up his residence at Gaeta, under the protection of the King of Naples. The greatest excitement prevailed when the news of his departure was made known. The Roman Parliament, which had met on the day of Rossi's death, appointed an executive committee of three persons, and ordered the election of a Constituent Assembly. The Pope contented himself with issuing one brief after another to declare the nullity of all that was done during his absence, but did nothing to strengthen the hands of the Moderate party, who were

still inclined to trust him. The Constituent Assembly, in which both Garibaldi and Mazzini had seats, decided that the Pope had forfeited the temporal government of the State, that he should be guaranteed the independent exercise of his spiritual power, and that a pure democracy should be created under the name of the Roman Republic. In Tuscany Leopold II followed the Pope's example when he found that matters were going too far, and escaped first to San Stefano and then to Gaeta. Not returning, a republic was proclaimed in Florence under the presidency of Guerrazzi.

REVOLUTION IN AUSTRIA HUNGARY.

During the months which witnessed the overthrow and restoration of the Austrian power in Italy, the home Government was undergoing a great crisis. Kolowrat, who took Metternich's place, was unequal to the task of maintaining order, and the Government was carried on under the dictation of the students and the mob. The disturbances in the capital were stirred up by Kossuth, who aimed at freeing Hungary altogether from Hapsburg rule. The Emperor had already granted the Hungarians an independent Ministry, in which Kossuth undertook to control the finance. But the Revolutionary party demanded a constitution on the model of that of Baden, and the Diet was terrified by an insurrection into passing a decree for its establishment. In Bohemia the Slavonic party also agitated for the formation of an independent government and the exclusion of German elements. But the Slavs had no sympathy with the Magyars, and were willing to support the Hapsburgs if they would grant their demands. They were especially anxious to prevent the federal union of the German provinces of Austria with the rest of Germany. Kossuth determined to effect his own aims and to frustrate those of Bohemia by terrifying the imperial government. A new constitution had been issued, which established the ordinary two chambers. On May 15th the populace of Vienna rose in revolt and demanded the abolition of the aristocratic chamber and the summons of a National Assembly to reform the constitution. Resistance was impossible, and Ferdinand, by the advice of the Reactionary party, escaped with his family from Vienna to Innsbruck. This was a very well-judged measure, because it freed the Emperor from the influence of both the Hungarians and the Bohemians, while he could rely upon the support of the Tyrolese, always the most loyal subjects of the house of Hapsburg.



1859—NAPOLEON III AT THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO



1859—BATTLE OF MAGENTA BETWEEN THE AUSTRIANS AND ITALIANS

WAR THREATENED IN VIENNA.

In Vienna the wildest excitement prevailed for a time. The mobs raised barricades in the streets, and civil war was only avoided by ordering the troops to leave the city. In Bohemia the Emperor's departure to Innsbruck was regarded as a serious blow, because it had been hoped that he would take up his residence in Prague and entrust the defence of the crown to his Slav subjects. His weakness and humiliation, however, still offered a favorable prospect of realizing their designs. On June 2d a great Slavonic Congress was opened under the presidency of Palacky, the historian. Three days later it was formally decreed that the Slavs would remain loyal subjects of the Hapsburgs on condition that the Austrian monarchy was organized as a federation. At the same time a provisional government was formed in Prague, and the Emperor was called upon to order Windischgratz, the commander of the garrison, to withdraw his troops. But before this could be answered hostilities broke out. After an indecisive conflict in the street, in which the wife of Windischgratz was killed, the garrison retired outside the walls, but only to bombard the city from the surrounding hills. This decided the struggle. The opposition leaders made their escape, and Prague surrendered unconditionally (June 18th). This was only a small success in itself, but, coupled with Radetsky's victory in Italy, it had a great moral effect in restoring the courage and prestige of the Austrian Government. At the same time the movement in Hungary was seriously hampered by the action of the Slavonic portion of the population. The Slavs were always bitterly hostile to the Magyars, and the project of establishing an independent State of Hungary threatened them with political annihilation. Their only hope lay in the maintenance of German rule, and they rose in wild revolt against the dominant party of Kossuth. The Magyars had also to carry on war with the Croates under their Ban, Jellachich, who was secretly instigated by the imperial court.

WAR WITH HUNGARY.

Meanwhile the constituent assembly, which Ferdinand had authorized before his departure, met on July 22, 1848. Race differences among its members made it difficult for them to come to any agreement, and they were soon absorbed in the thorny question of the relation of lords and serfs. But the presence of the Assembly seemed to exercise a tran-

quilizing effect upon Vienna, and the more favorable aspect of affairs emboldened the Emperor to return to his capital (August 12th). In the hope of ending the Hungarian war he nominated Count Lamberg commander of the troops in that kingdom, but the unfortunate general was murdered on the bridge of boats in Pesth. All hopes of a reconciliation were now at an end, and open war was declared against the Hungarians. But this act also terminated the tranquillity at Vienna, which was in a great measure due to the influence of Kossuth. On October 6th a third revolt commenced and proved far more formidable than either of its predecessors. Its immediate object was to prevent the march of the troops, who had been ordered to proceed to Hungary. The mob murdered Latour, the war minister, stormed the arsenals and compelled the Constituent Assembly to demand from the Emperor the cessation of hostilities against the Hungarians. Ferdinand again fled, this time to Olmutz, in Moravia. The garrison under Auersperg occupied a defensive position in the Belvedere gardens, and the city was left in the hands of the insurgents. But their triumph was very short-lived. Jellachich, with his Croates, marched from the Raab against Vienna, and Windischgratz, the victor of Prague, was appointed commander-in-chief of all Austrian troops outside of Italy. But the besieged of the approaching aid from Hungary, refused to yield, and for several days carried on a desperate struggle against superior forces. On the 30th the Hungarian troops were seen in the distance, but they were repulsed after a short engagement on the Schwecht. This sealed the fate of Vienna, which surrendered on the next day. The rebels received the prompt punishment of military justice. The Austrian monarchy was saved. On November 24th a new ministry was formed under Felix Schwartzenberg, the resolute head of the reactionary party. On December 2d the Emperor Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, on the ground that "younger powers were needed to carry out the reforms that had been commenced." The Constituent Assembly, which had been transferred from Vienna to Kremsier, was dissolved (March 7, 1849), and a new constitution was granted "by the grace of the Emperor."

"KING BOMBA"

Meanwhile the reaction at Naples and Sicily had been completed without foreign assistance. Ferdinand II, after recalling his troops from the

war in Lombardy, had employed them in reducing the Sicilians to obedience. Naples was bombarded, Messina was taken by storm (September 7, 1848), and the cruelties practiced by the victors were so atrocious that Ferdinand received the nickname of "King Bomba." The Neapolitan Parliament was continually prorogued, and was finally dissolved without ever having been allowed to meet. The Austrian victory of Novara encouraged the King to renew his attack upon Sicily. In April, 1849, Palermo was captured, and by the end of May the authority of the Neapolitan King was completely restored.

REACTION IN PRUSSIA.

The suppression of disorder at Vienna after the capture of the city by Windischgratz led to a similar reaction in Prussia. A Constituent Assembly had been sitting in Berlin ever since May 22, 1848, in which the democratic party sought to carry through its aims with the support of the mob. In June the arsenal was sacked, and the Assembly, instead of condemning the disturbances, took advantage of them to abolish the constitution granted by the King and to issue a more democratic one of their own. In August and September the populace was guilty of fresh outrages, which the Government was unable to check. But the news from Vienna emboldened the King, Frederick William IV, to take decisive measures. Count Brandenburg, a natural son of Frederick William II, was authorized to form a ministry, of which Manteuffel, Minister of the Interior, was the guiding spirit (November 4th). Four days later the Constituent Assembly was transferred from Berlin to the town of Brandenburg. When the Democrats refused to obey, a considerable body of troops under Wrangel entered the capital and enforced compliance. Berlin was declared in a state of siege, all the inhabitants were disarmed and the political clubs were dissolved. When the Assembly resumed their meeting in Brandenburg (November 27th), the Left protested against the recent action of the Government, and quitted the hall in a body. On December 5th, the King decreed the dissolution of the Assembly, and issued a new constitution, which had been drawn up by the ministers. This established two chambers, chosen by indirect election. The first election was ordered to take place in February, 1849.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Sir John Franklin Sails to Seek the North-west Passage—Humboldt's "Kosmos"—Necrology—The Planet Neptune—The Sewing-Machine—Anaesthetics—Personal.

THE story of Arctic adventure was in 1845 marked with one of its most tragic chapters. In that year Sir John Franklin sailed on his famous voyage in quest of the North-west Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific, across the northern coast of the North American Continent. For the discovery of this passage, which was afterward effected by McClure, the British Parliament had a century before offered a large reward. Sir John Franklin was, however, influenced by no mercenary motives, but was fired with the true spirit of the explorer. He was a distinguished officer of the British Navy, and a veteran of the great battles of Copenhagen and Trafalgar. He had commanded the British gunboats at the battle of New Orleans, and had been wounded in that engagement. He had led Arctic expeditions in 1818, 1819 and 1825. He had become Post Captain and Fellow of the Royal Society in 1823; had been knighted in 1829, and in the latter year had received from Oxford University the honorary degree of D. C. L. He had served as Governor of Tasmania in 1836-43, and had been greatly beloved.

Such was the eminent man who now set out for the frozen wilderness. He took with him an expert company of men in the two ships of the British Navy—"Erebus" and "Terror." No Arctic expedition down to that time had commanded a tithe of the popular interest that was given to this. It went north, and entered the realm of perpetual ice, and was never seen again. More than a score of search and relief expeditions were sent after it—from England and America—but without result, until in 1859 Captain McClintock found evidence that Franklin had died on June 11, 1847, near Lancaster Sound, and that all his men had subsequently perished. Lady Franklin survived her husband for many years, devoting her after life to philanthropic labors and to efforts to rescue or learn tidings of him.

HUMBOLDT'S "KOSMOS."

The appearance of Humboldt's "Kosmos" in 1845 marked an epoch in the literature of science. Friedrich Heinrich Alexander, Baron von Humboldt, one of the most illustrious scientists of all times, was a native of Berlin. He traveled much, and was a profound student of all branches of natural science, including botany, geology, chemistry, astronomy and zoology, beside excelling as a linguist and serving with distinction as a diplomat. At the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries he spent five years in South and Central America, having with him an immense caravan of assistants and an arsenal of scientific instruments. On his return home he devoted twenty-five years to the arrangement of his stores of specimens, etc., and to writing twenty-nine volumes of treatises on his discoveries and explorations. This colossal work placed him at the head of the scientific world, and gave new impulses to natural science in every direction, and even to poetry and art. Another journey of exploration was made under the patronage of the Czar through Central Asia. Finally, in 1845, he began the publication of his greatest work, "Kosmos," the last volume of which was published after his death in May, 1859.

NECROLOGY.

The year 1845 saw the world made poorer by the death of several men of eminent rank. Among these were Sydney Smith, clergyman and author, one of the founders of the "Edinburgh Review," and one of the most brilliant wits and essayists the world has known; Andrew Jackson, who had been President of the United States, and had left a deep and ineffaceable imprint upon the history of this nation and of the world; A. W. Schlegel, the German critic and poet, and one of the leaders of the Romantic school of literature; and Thomas Hood, the English poet and humorist, the greatest punster the world has known, and the author of some of the most immortal poems in the English language—such as "The Bridge of Sighs," "The Song of the Shirt," "The Haunted House," and "The Dream of Eugene Aram."

THE PLANET NEPTUNE.

The discovery of the planet Neptune in 1846 was, from every point of view, an incident of the highest interest. It was made specially

memorable by the fact that it was effected simultaneously by two astronomers, Adams in the United States, and Leverrier in France, working independently, and each in entire ignorance of the other's labors.

THE SEWING-MACHINE.

We must credit the same year, 1846, with the invention of the sewing-machine, for it was then that Elias Howe obtained his first patent on that labor-revolutionizing device. As early as 1790 Thomas Saint, an Englishman, had invented a rude machine for sewing, which contained the germ of the modern machine. Other devices were brought out from time to time, especially by John Knowles and the Rev. John Adams Dodge, of Moncton, Vermont, but none of them were practically successful. Thimonier, in France, manufactured in 1830 the first sewing-machine that was ever put upon the market for sale. His machine contained the essential principles of the modern sewing-machine. But it was opposed by the mob of Paris, as intended to deprive the poor of work, and all that were exposed for sale were violently destroyed. Walter Hunt, of New York, perfected a machine in 1832-34 and put it upon the market for sale, but failed to patent it. J. J. Greenough invented a machine for sewing shoes in 1842, but it was not a permanent success. George H. Corliss, who later invented various improvements in the steam engine, added to the number of unsuccessful sewing-machines in 1843.

Finally, in 1846, Elias Howe obtained a patent for his machine, and although his earliest machines were not satisfactory, he is rightly esteemed as the real inventor of this great labor-saving device. Other inventors took up the example which he set, and in a few years many different kinds of sewing-machines were on the market. Among the foremost of these were the Wheeler & Wilson, invented by Allan B. Wilson in 1849; the Singer, invented by Isaac Singer in 1850; the Grover & Baker, in 1851, and the Wilcox & Gibbs, in 1857. All but the last named, which used a single thread only, were held to be infringements upon Howe's patent, and the makers had to pay him a royalty of \$25 on each machine until the expiration of his patent in 1867.

ANAESTHETICS.

One more great discovery must be set down under the date of 1846. It was in that year that anæsthetics were first used. The actual date of

their invention is in dispute. In ancient times the anæsthetic properties of some drugs were imperfectly known. In 1800 Sir Humphrey Davy suggested the use of nitrous oxide, and ether had certainly been used experimentally at an earlier date. In 1844 Horace Wells, a dentist, of Hartford, Conn., used nitrous oxide, or "laughing gas," to prevent pain in the extraction of teeth, but the invention fell into disuse, if not disrepute. It was soon taken up again, however, and remains in high favor as one of the best means of preventing pain in dental and some surgical operations.

In October, 1846, Dr. W. T. G. Morton, of Boston, who had already used ether successfully in dental operations, administered it to a patient in the Massachusetts General Hospital during a surgical operation by Dr. Warren. It was completely successful, and marked the beginning of a new era in surgery. For it not only robbed operations of excruciating pain, but it thus made possible long and important operations which without it were absolutely impossible. Chloroform was introduced as an anæsthetic by Sir J. Y. Simpson, of Edinburgh.

PERSONAL.

Lord Macaulay published the first part of his "History of England" in 1848, and thus established his fame as one of the most accomplished writers of history that the world has known.

O'Connell, the Irish "liberator," and Mendelssohn, the musician, died in 1847. They were followed in 1848 by John Quincy Adams, who had been President of the United States; Donizetti, one of the foremost composers of Italian opera; Chateaubriand, the French author and statesman; and George Stevenson, the inventor of railroads

CHAPTER XXV.

Zachary Taylor Becomes President of the United States—The Free Soil Party—The Slavery Question—Clay's Compromise—A Famous Oration—Foote's Resolution—Lopez in Cuba—Clayton-Bulwer Treaty—Death of Taylor—Accession of Fillmore—The Lopez Expedition—Incidents of the Administration—Election of Pierce.

IN 1849, Mr. Polk was succeeded by Zachary Taylor, most of whose life had been spent as an officer in the army, and who, in the Mexican war, had acquired a high reputation as a military commander. General Taylor was the Whig candidate, and he received 163 electoral votes for President; and General Lewis Cass, the Democratic candidate, received 127 votes. Millard Fillmore, the Whig candidate, received 163 votes for Vice-President.

THE FREE SOIL PARTY.

On the 3d of December the 31st Congress commenced its first session. On several former instances the organization of the House had been delayed, by ineffectual efforts to elect a speaker. In 1820, 17 ballotings were made before such a choice could be effected. In the present instance, the ballotings were extended to 63, occupying the space of twenty days. This delay was occasioned by the "Free Soil Party," so called, which was composed of but few members, but who were able to prevent either of the great political parties in the House from effecting a choice. A choice was, however, at length made, and resulted in the election of the Democratic candidate.

Such a severe and protracted contest, on the threshold of the session, was unanticipated, both by Congress and the nation. The delay caused was at a cost to the national treasury of more than \$50,000. "But," as a writer remarks, "other consequences far more serious than this resulted. The feelings of members became excited and exasperated; political jealousies and animosities were kindled; sectional differences were magnified to unwonted importance, and sectional interests advo

cated and insisted upon ; all giving premonition of the long and stormy session which followed, and which was the natural and almost necessary result of such selfish and party proceedings."

The time, however, at length arrived for the reception of the annual message. It had been looked for with great interest. It was a brief but comprehensive document. The relations of the country were stated to be on an amicable footing with all nations, the slight interruption of diplomatic intercourse with France having already terminated. Various subjects were pressed upon the attention of Congress, among which may be mentioned a revision of the existing tariff—the establishment of a branch mint in California—improvements in rivers and harbors—strict neutrality of the nation in respect to foreign contending powers—and the immediate admission of California, on the basis of the Constitution, which she had already formed.

THE SLAVERY QUESTION.

Early in the session it was apparent that the subject of slavery was to become the great topic of controversy and debate. The recent acquisitions of territory, growing out of the war with Mexico, and the question whether slavery should be permitted or prohibited, in respect to those territories, had already become a source of anxiety and agitation. It was well known that California was about to make application to be admitted into the Union upon the basis of a Constitution, by which slavery was forever excluded. To several of the Southern States this intelligence, if not entirely unexpected, was most unwelcome ; while to the people of the North such a prohibition was most gratifying ; and the hope was indulged that not only her admission on such a basis would be effected, but that other States, which should be subsequently formed from acquired territory, would be admitted with similar provisions.

The members of Congress themselves largely participated in the excitement which was pervading the country. This was manifested in the contest attendant upon the election of a speaker ; and no sooner was that officer elected, and the business of the session commenced, than it was quite apparent that a storm was arising, which would require the greatest wisdom and the purest patriotism to allay. It was fortunate for the country that the Senate at this time embodied men of great sagacity and firm resolution ; and upon them it devolved in the first in-

stance to devise measures, which it was hoped would serve to conciliate the South and the North, and heal divisions which, if suffered to increase, were likely to peril the integrity of the Union.

CLAY'S COMPROMISE.

In these pacific measures Mr. Clay took the lead, introducing several resolutions before the Senate, "by which he proposed," to use his own language, "an amicable arrangement of all the questions in controversy between free and slave States, growing out of the subject of the institution of slavery." The first of these related to the admission of California, when she should apply, without providing for the introduction or exclusion of slavery within her boundaries. The second declared that slavery does not exist, and is not likely to be introduced into the territories acquired from the republic of Mexico; and that no legislation should be had in reference to its introduction or exclusion therefrom. The third established the western boundary in the State of Texas. The fourth provided for the payment of the public debt of the State of Texas, she relinquishing to the United States all her claims for any part of New Mexico. The fifth asserted the inexpediency of abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, without the consent of Maryland, without the consent of the people of the district, and without just compensation to the owners of the slaves within the district. The sixth expressed the expediency of prohibiting the slave trade in the District of Columbia. The seventh related to the restitution and delivery of fugitive slaves. The eighth denied the power to Congress to prohibit or obstruct the slave trade between the slaveholding States.

A FAMOUS ORATION.

At a subsequent day, Mr. Clay supported these resolutions in a speech, which, for power, pathos, and patriotic sentiment, has seldom, if ever, been excelled. He had returned once more from private life to the councils of the nation, to lift up his voice as the friend of peace—as the friend of his country. He had no political ambition to gratify—he was soon to pass away—he would soon be beyond the praise or the blame of men; but one object was dear to his heart; one more effort he desired to make in behalf of that country which he had loved, which he had long served, and which to his dying day he should bear upon his

heart. The Union was in danger. Clouds of deeper density than he had before known were rising—were gathering still greater consistency, and were apparently ready to pour forth a terrible storm upon the land. Disunion was no longer with some an object of dread. The calamities of civil war were thought of, and some no longer trembled at them. But against these sources of disunion and these causes of civil war, he would loudly, strongly, untiringly lift his warning voice. “Sir,” said he, “I implore gentlemen, I abjure them, whether from the South or the North, by all they hold dear in this world—by all their love of liberty—by all their veneration for their ancestors—by all their gratitude to Him who has bestowed on them such unnumbered and countless blessings—by all the duties which they owe to mankind—and by all the duties which they owe to themselves, to pause, solemnly to pause at the edge of the precipice, before the fatal and dangerous leap is taken into the yawning abyss below, from which none who ever take it shall return in safety.”

Having thus presented his resolutions, and fortified them by arguments and considerations of the highest import, Mr. Clay submitted them to such action on the part of the Senate, as they in their wisdom should deem best for the country. And from this time for months they occupied the attention and consideration of the Senate, to the exclusion of almost every other subject. During no session of that body, since the commencement of the Federal Government, had any other measure elicited so much debate, excited such ardent, we might almost say, angry controversy. Nor can we stop here. Personal invectives, personal crimination and recrimination, sadly marred the dignity of grave Senators, and served to bring dishonor upon a body which had long been the pride and boast of the nation.

FOOTE'S RESOLUTION.

The resolutions introduced by Mr. Clay not proving acceptable to a majority of Senators, though no definite action was had respecting them, a proposition was made by Mr. Foote to refer the entire subject to a select committee consisting of thirteen. After a protracted debate the resolution was adopted, and the committee appointed, of which Mr. Clay was chairman. Early in May this committee made a report, introducing a compromise or omnibus bill of the following tenor :

1. The admission of any new State or States, formed out of Texas, to be postponed until they shall hereafter present themselves to be re-

ceived into the Union, when it will be the duty of Congress fairly and faithfully to execute the compact with Texas, by admitting such new State or States.

2. The admission forthwith of California into the Union, with the boundaries which she has proposed.

3. The establishment of territorial governments, without the Wilmot Proviso, for New Mexico and Utah, embracing all the territory recently acquired by the United States from Mexico not contained in the boundaries of California.

4. The combination of these two last mentioned measures in the same bill.

5. The establishment of the western and northern boundary of Texas, and the exclusion from her jurisdiction of all New Mexico, with the grant to Texas of a pecuniary equivalent. And the section for that purpose to be incorporated in the bill admitting California, and establishing territorial governments for Utah and New Mexico.

6. More effectual enactments of law to secure the prompt delivery of persons bound to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, who escape into another State. And,

7. Abstaining from abolishing slavery; but under a heavy penalty, prohibiting the slave-trade in the District of Columbia.

These measures were finally adopted, and thus, it was hoped, the slavery question was disposed of. But the hope was vain.

LOPEZ IN CUBA.

For a long time rumors had been prevalent that an armed expedition was contemplated in the United States against the island of Cuba. As early as August, 1849, the President, in the belief that such an expedition was designed, had issued his proclamation, warning the citizens of the United States against connecting themselves with an enterprise "so grossly in violation of our laws and our treaty obligations." Notwithstanding this executive discountenance of such a project, an expedition, with the above object in view, left New Orleans on the 25th of April and on the 22d of May. It consisted of three hundred men, under the command of General Lopez. The ostensible object of the expedition was a voyage to California, and it is asserted that not a few of the men enlisted under this assurance. So secretly had the enterprise been planned

and executed, as to escape the knowledge of the American government and the vigilance of the Spanish consuls. On the morning of the 19th of May, General Lopez landed his force at Cardenas, immediately upon which a combat ensued between the invaders and the garrison. This resulted in the repulse of the latter, the capture of the Governor, the plunder of the palace, and the seizure of the public money. Whether assurances had been given to the invaders that they might expect the assistance and co-operation of the inhabitants, is not certain, but upon no other presumption can the officers of the expedition be acquitted of consummate folly and infatuation. Be this, however, as it may, the invaders found to their disappointment that Cuban patriotism was not a nonentity. Lopez and his followers were soon made to feel the necessity of an immediate escape, in order to save their lives. Taking with him a few followers, he hastily re-embarked, leaving the great body of his adherents to the tender mercies of the authorities of Cuba.

No sooner had this expedition left the American coast, and its object had transpired, than President Taylor despatched several armed vessels to prevent, if possible, its landing in Cuba. In this, however, the intentions of the American executive were frustrated; the invaders having effected a landing before the pursuing vessels could overtake them. On the return of Lopez to New Orleans he was arrested and held for trial. Two vessels in the Mexican waters, laden with men suspected of being part of the invading expedition, were captured by a Spanish steamer and taken into Havana. On the demand of the President, however, these men were at length released, their being no *evidence* that they were in anywise connected with the expedition. Indeed, of all who were left by Lopez in Cuba, and who participated in the invasion, but two or three were ultimately condemned to punishment, and these were sent to the galleys.

CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.

An important diplomatic incident of this administration was the conclusion, on July 4, 1850, of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty between the United States and Great Britain. This treaty provided for the establishment of a communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, by means of a ship canal, to be constructed by way of the river San Juan de Nicaragua, and either or both of the lakes of Nicaragua or Maragua, to **any port or place on the Pacific Ocean.** It also bound the two Signatory

Powers to refrain from territorial conquests in Central America, and from the exercise of exclusive control over the proposed canal.

DEATH OF ZACHARY TAYLOR.

The history of events now brings us to an unexpected and most afflictive dispensation—the sudden death of General Taylor, on the evening of the 9th of July. On the 4th of that month—memorable in the annals of American history—he had participated in a celebration in honor of the day, during which he had suffered greatly from exposure and fatigue. Consequent upon these he was taken ill, and after a few days of suffering he surrendered his spirit into the hands of God, who gave it—leaving to his friends and the nation his assurance that he “had endeavored to discharge his duty.” His funeral was attended by a large military gathering, by the officers of the general government, the representatives of foreign nations, and by an immense concourse of his fellow-citizens.

ACCESSION OF FILLMORE.

President Taylor died during the session of Congress, and Millard Fillmore, in accordance with the provision of the Constitution, became President of the United States.

Soon after the accession of Mr. Fillmore the series of important acts were passed by Congress, which had been proposed by Mr. Clay as “compromise measures.” These acts consisted of the admission of California into the Union as a State, the establishment of the boundary of Texas, the organization of the Territories of New Mexico and Utah, the suppression of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and the law for the rendition of fugitive slaves.

The act for the rendition of fugitive slaves, which was passed in the House of Representatives, on the 12th of September, 1850, by a vote of one hundred and nine to seventy-five, contains some provisions which were very offensive to the Whig party generally, and to most of the people in the free States, and its execution was, in some cases, attended with much opposition.

THE LOPEZ EXPEDITION.

In April, 1851, President Fillmore, having been informed of another attempt to invade Cuba by lawless citizens of the United States, under the command of Lopez, issued a proclamation warning them of the consequences.

The expedition, however, comprising several hundred men, a part of them foreigners, sailed from New Orleans in August, and landed in Cuba on the northern coast of the western department of that island. To their landing there was no opposition.

Leaving Colonel Crittenden with one hundred men in charge of the stores, Lopez himself, with the remainder of his command, advanced into the interior, expecting that his standard would be joined by the inhabitants of the island. But in this he was disappointed, as also in obtaining provisions or encouragement of any sort.

The day following Colonel Crittenden and his force were attacked by Spanish troops, and compelled to retreat. They procured small boats, in which they put to sea, but were captured on the 15th by the Spanish Steamer "Habenero." On the 17th they were shot at Havana.

On the 13th General Lopez was also attacked by a large body of Spanish troops at Las Posas. The action was severe, but the Spaniards were repulsed. Lopez lost about fifty men, among whom was Colonel Bragg, an officer who had served with distinction in Hungary. Perceiving, however, that aid from the inhabitants was not to be expected, and that the maintenance of his position was impracticable, Lopez determined to conceal himself in the mountains. In his march thither he inflicted serious loss upon Spanish troops who encountered him. On the 29th, however, he was captured and taken to Havana, where, two days later, he was put to death.

INCIDENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

During Mr. Fillmore's administration the first treaty with Hawaii was made, and the question of annexing those islands to the United States was considered; the Territory of Washington was formed and organized; the practice of flogging in the Navy was abolished; and the capitol at Washington was greatly enlarged and beautified.

Although Mr. Fillmore, by signing the fugitive slave law bill, lost the support of many of his party, yet most of the measures of his administration were popular; some of the most noted of which were the reduction of inland postage to three cents on each single letter when pre-paid; and an expedition to Japan, in 1852, under the command of Commodore Perry, which resulted in a favorable treaty with that empire, which was ratified by the Senate in 1854; and when he retired from office he left the country at peace and in a high state of prosperity

ELECTION OF PIERCE.

As Mr. Fillmore's term of office was limited to March 4, 1853, it became necessary for the great parties of the country seasonably to nominate their respective candidates to succeed him. Accordingly, on the 1st of June, a Democratic National Convention met at Baltimore. The number of delegates present was two hundred and eighty-eight; and a rule was adopted requiring a vote of two-thirds (192) for a nomination. Unsuccessful ballotings were had for four days, and it was not until the forty-ninth ballot that General Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, received the nomination. Upon the forty-eighth ballot he received one hundred and fifty-five votes, the remainder being divided between Messrs. Cass, Buchanan and Marcy. Upon the forty-ninth trial he received one hundred and eighty-two votes. Hon. William R. King, of Alabama, was nominated for Vice-President.

The Whig National Convention met likewise at Baltimore on the 17th of June, and after four days' obstinate contest between the supporters of President Fillmore, Secretary Webster and General Winfield Scott, finally nominated the last named for President, with Hon. William A. Graham, of North Carolina, for Vice-President.

The Free Democracy National Convention, which assembled at Pittsburg in August nominated John P. Hale for President and George W. Julian for Vice-President.

The election in November resulted in the choice of the Democratic candidate, Franklin Pierce.



GENERAL SHERMAN



GENERAL VON MOLTKE



GENERAL LEE



ADMIRAL DEWEY



GENERAL WELLINGTON



ADMIRAL FARRAGUT



GENERAL ROBERTS



GENERAL MEADE



GENERAL MILES



1861—FIRING ON FORT SUMTER

CHAPTER XXVI.

The Frankfort Parliament—Organizing a German League—An Error of Tactics—A Christmas Gift to Germany—Framing a Constitution—A King Declines to be Emperor—A Conflict with the Kings—Revolutionary Movements—The First “Dreibund”—Final Failure of the Congress—Schleswig-Holstein—Kossuth’s Campaign—Russian Intervention—Another Italian War—Italian Republic Crushed—The Taiping Rebellion—Indian Affairs—Death of Lopez in Cuba—Imperial Ambitions—The Coup D’Etat—Restoration of the Empire—Rebuilding Paris.

WHILE the States of Europe were convulsed with the storm of revolution, a grand national assembly at Frankfort was endeavoring to devise a constitution which should form Germany into a great and united State. This assembly, which may be called the German Parliament, to distinguish it from the Reichstag or Bundestag, had been summoned by the Vorparliament, and was opened in the church of St. Paul on May 18, 1848. It contained at first 300 members, but their number was afterwards increased to 500. The Parliament failed to carry out its resolutions, but nevertheless it was a notable experiment, and a worthy exponent of the hopes and aspirations of the noblest minds of Germany. The great obstacle to its success was that it had nothing but moral force to rely upon; that it trusted to the enthusiasm of the people to triumph over the jealous interests of the princes and the deeply-rooted tendencies to disunion. From the first the assembly was divided into three fairly distinct parties. On the right the conservatives, headed by von Radowitz and Vincke, wished to negotiate an agreement between the Parliament and the independent princes and governments of the separate States. On the left the democrats, led by Robert Blum of Leipsic, aimed at the establishment of a federal republic, and made up for their numerical weakness by stirring up the passions of the lower classes. The centre was the largest party,

and comprised many of the most eminent men in Germany. Among its leaders were Gagern, Dahlmann, Gervinus, Arndt, Beseler, and Jacob Grimm. These men were the partisans of constitutional monarchy. They were imbued with the most ardent love of their country, but their want of practical experience in public business exposed them to the charge of being doctrinaires.

ORGANIZING A GERMAN LEAGUE.

The choice of the president, Gagern, gave evidence that the centre was likely to have the decisive voice. The first business was to establish an executive government to take the place of the effete and useless Bundestag. After a long discussion it was decided to choose a provisional administrator from among the younger members of the ruling families. The choice fell upon the archduke John, who had shown popular sympathies, and who, as a Hapsburg, was likely to be acceptable to the princes. The election was intended to be a temporary compromise. The party of Gagern and Dahlmann was fully determined to entrust the headship of a new constitutional empire to the King of Prussia, and the weakness of Austria at this time made such a measure more than usually feasible. But at the moment Frederick William IV. was extremely unpopular in Germany, and it was necessary to gain time in order that this feeling might die away. On July 11 the administrator made his formal entry into Frankfort, and the Bundestag resigned its functions into his hands. He proceeded to nominate a ministry which should be responsible for all acts of the executive. From the first the weakness of the central government was obvious to all eyes. The Parliament ordered that all German troops should take an oath of fealty to the administrator. But the princes were by no means inclined to sacrifice one iota of their military independence, and in the larger States the order was simply disregarded. It was manifest that the central government existed only by the tolerance of the States, and if they refused to obey there was no force which could compel their obedience.

AN ERROR OF TACTICS.

Before proceeding to draw up the new constitution, the Parliament set itself to formulate "the fundamental rights of the German people."

This was a grotesque error of tactics. The discussion of first principles naturally led to an endless discussion, and during the delay the princes were recovering strength. The first impulse of the revolutionary movement might have been strong enough to force a federal constitution upon Germany, but the Parliament foolishly allowed this impulse to spend itself and a reaction to set in before they entered upon their real task.

A CHRISTMAS GIFT TO GERMANY.

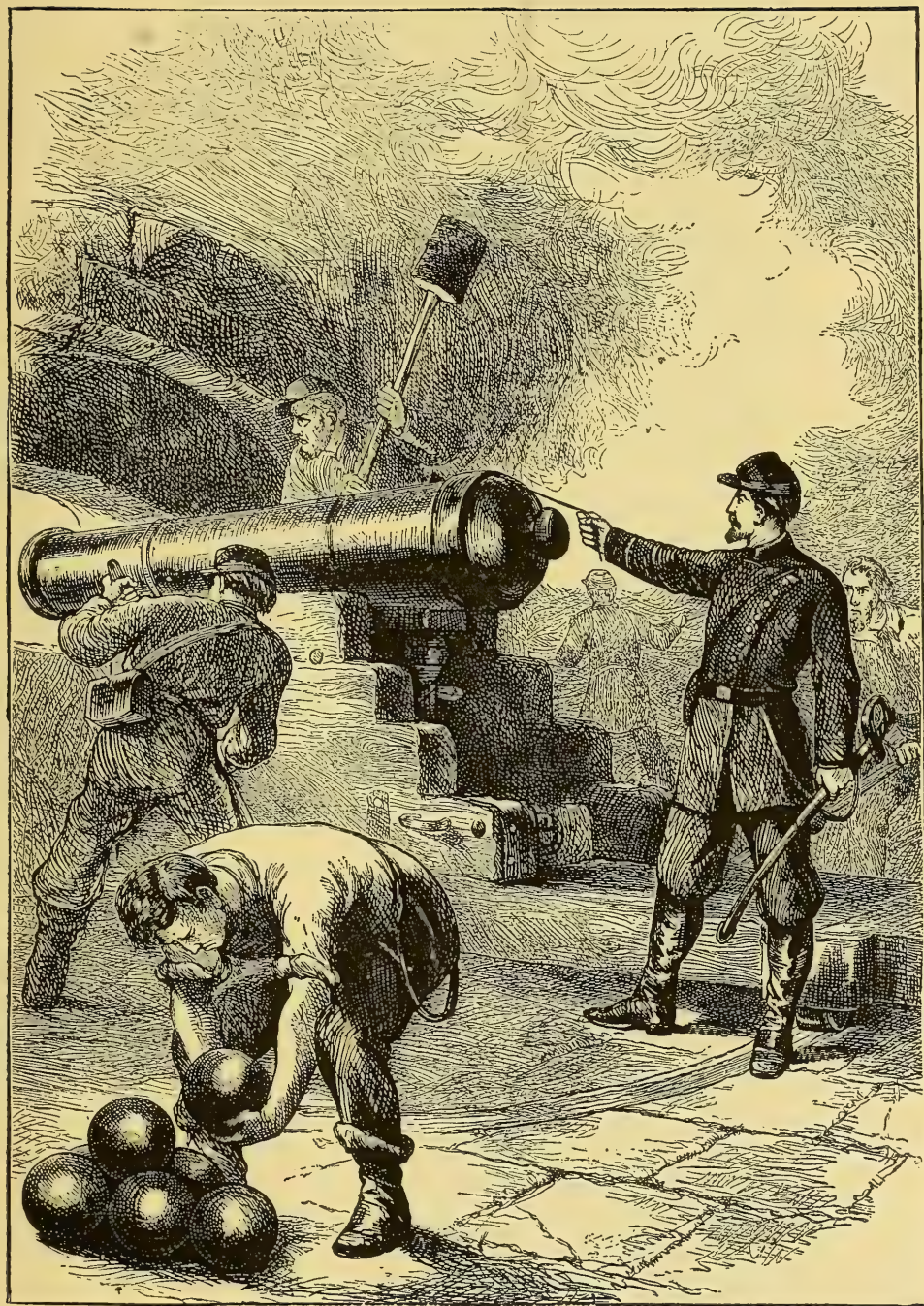
By the end of 1848 the Parliament had drawn up the "fundamental rights," and published them as a Christmas present to the nation. They were based on the prevailing liberal theories, and included legal equality for all men without regard to class privileges, the abolition of all feudal dues and burdens on the peasants, the freedom of the press, religious equality, trial by jury, the abolition of capital punishment, etc. The lesser States accepted them, the greater States took no notice, and they were soon forgotten. The assembly now turned to the great question of the constitution. By far the most important problem was the relation of Austria to a German federation. In the early part of the year Austria, then in the thick of her difficulties, had been disregarded, but matters had been completely altered in October by the reduction of Vienna to obedience. The restoration of the Holy Roman Empire with a Hapsburg head was impossible, because Prussia would never submit to it. Equally impossible in the eyes of the assembly was a return to the old organization of the *Bund*, which had completely proved its inefficiency. In these circumstances the Parliament had three alternatives to choose between. (1) Austria might be split up, and its German provinces might be united with the German federation. (2) The Austrian empire might be left as it stood, and be excluded from Germany altogether. (3) Even though this latter plan were carried out, some bond might be found to unite the Austrian empire with the German federation. This last was the plan adopted by Gagern and his immediate followers, who proposed to form two federations—a smaller, which should exclude, and a larger, which should include, Austria. But this proposal alienated a number of sincere patriots, who could not endure the formation of a united Germany to which any Germans were refused admission.

FRAMING A CONSTITUTION.

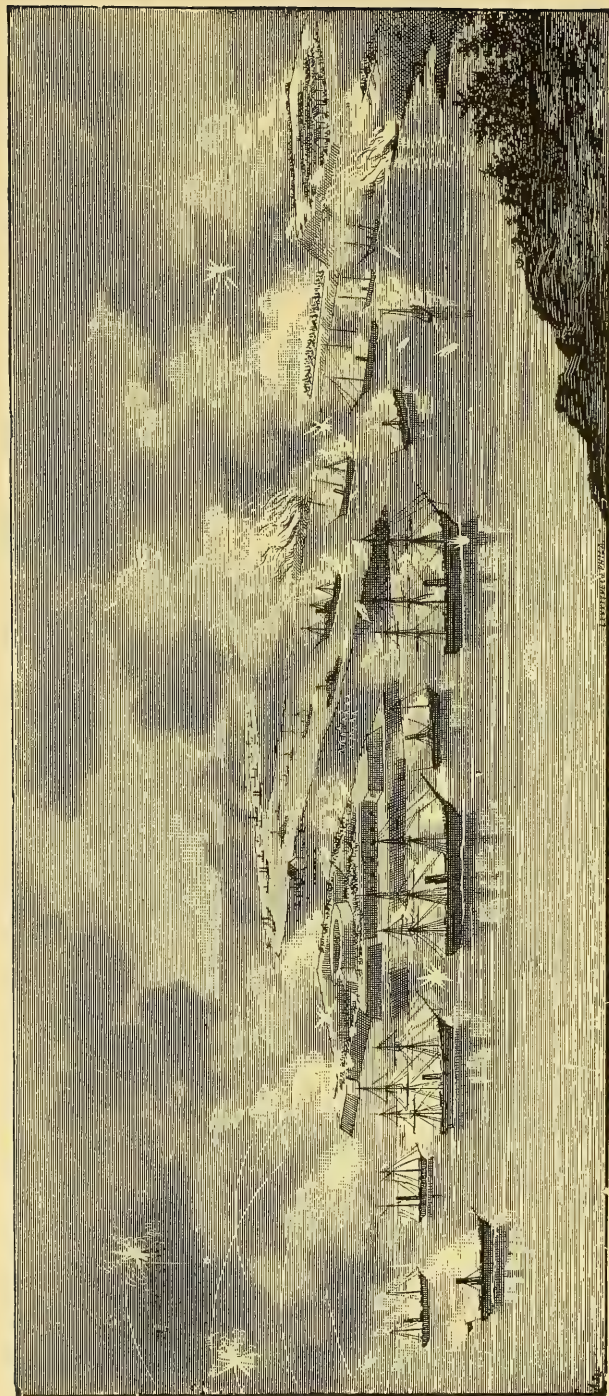
Parties being so evenly divided on a question of vital importance, the work of framing the constitution proceeded slowly. It was decided that the executive government should have the conduct of foreign relations, the supreme control of the army, and the right of deciding peace or war. The legislature was to consist of two houses: a federal chamber (*Statenhaus*), based on the independence of the States; and a popular chamber (*Volkshaus*), based upon the unity of the people. The most obstinate discussion naturally arose about the form which the executive government should take. The extreme right proposed a simple return to the old *Bundestag*, the extreme left proposed to establish an elective presidency to which any adult German might aspire. Between these two schemes every conceivable variety of government was brought forward for discussion. Some wanted a "directory" of princes, with Austria or Prussia as alternate presidents; others a triple executive, in which Bavaria should be associated with the two great powers. Austria demanded that there should be a directory of seven princes, with nine votes, Austria and Prussia having two votes each. Gradually the advantages of a single head were realized, but even then further difficulties arose. Should he be elective or hereditary? should he bear the imperial or some other title? should the office pass in rotation among the great families? The party of Gagern stood firm to their original programme, the appointment of a single hereditary emperor, and they carried the day. This pointed to the election of the Prussian king, and exclusion of Austria. The "Great German" party was so indignant at this that they allied themselves with the left to introduce democratic provisions into the constitution, hoping to ensure its failure. In consequence of this alliance, manhood suffrage was fixed for the popular chamber, and the veto of the emperor was made suspensive instead of absolute. The constitutional party realized that these articles threatened their scheme with shipwreck, but they could obtain no other terms. The constitution was carried as a whole. On April 3d, 1849, a deputation appeared in Berlin to offer the hereditary empire to the king of Prussia.

A KING DECLINES TO BE EMPEROR.

The offer was sufficiently tempting, but Frederick William IV. made up his mind at the last moment to refuse it, and it must be



1861—DEFENDING FORT SUMTER



1862—FARRAGUT'S FLEET PASSING FORTS JACKSON AND ST. PHILIP

confessed that he had ample reason for doing so. The democratic clauses which the left had tacked on to the constitution were distasteful to a prince who had had to contend with the populace in his own capital, and the crown could not be accepted without the constitution. The whole work of the Parliament had originated with the revolution, and the king would receive no gift from such a source.

A CONFLICT WITH THE KINGS.

The refusal of Prussia gave a great advantage to the democratic party at Frankfort, and this was increased by the withdrawal of the Austrian deputies (April 14). In Prussia the lower chamber petitioned the king to accept the proposals from Frankfort, and was dissolved on April 27. But the Parliament refused to be daunted, and decreed on May 4 that all governments should be called upon to accept the constitution; that if the king of Prussia refused the headship of the empire it should be conferred provisionally upon the next most powerful prince; that the first diet, elected in the manner provided for, should meet on August 22.

REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENTS.

To enforce these decrees, the now dominant left determined to employ the revolutionary methods which had been so potent in the previous year. A riot in Dresden compelled the king to fly to Königsstein, and a provisional government was erected. But the troops, with Prussian assistance, speedily got the better of the mob, and an attempted rising in Leipsic was also suppressed. More important were the revolutions in Baden and the Palatinate, but here also Prussia intervened with decisive effect. The Parliament was now completely discredited. The Prussian and Saxon deputies were withdrawn, and Gagern, finding himself in a hopeless minority, resigned office with his colleagues. The democrats, thus left to their own devices, passed futile protests against the action of Prussia, and took the revolutionary movement under their feeble protection. Thinking Frankfort insecure, they transferred their session to Stuttgart (June 6); but when they endeavored to excite a movement among the mob, the government of Wurtemberg closed the hall against them, and the first German Parliament came to an end on June 18, 1849.

THE FIRST "DREIBUND."

As Austria was at this time occupied with the wars in Hungary and Italy, the restoration of order in Germany fell to Prussia, which thus obtained a commanding position. Frederick William IV. had not refused the offer of the empire from any personal unwillingness or want of ambition; on the contrary he was eager to become the head of Germany, if he could do so with the consent of the other governments, instead of being forced upon them by a revolutionary Assembly. In May 17, 1849, he opened a conference of princes at Berlin, before which he laid his plan of a confederation exclusive of Austria. Prussia was to be president of a college of princes with six votes, and a federal Parliament was to be formed of two chambers. Bavaria withdrew from the meeting, but Hanover and Saxony remained, and thus was formed the "league of the three kings" (*Dreikönigsbund*). The party of Gagern and Dahlmann held a meeting at Gotha (the *Nachparlament*) to express their approval of the Prussian plan.

But Austria now succeeded in putting down the opposition in Italy and Hungary and prepared to vindicate its position in Germany. Bavaria and Wurtemberg offered their mediation, and the Interim was arranged as a compromise between the two rival powers. This formed a commission, appointed by Austria and Prussia, into whose hands the administrator was to resign his functions, and which should act as a provisional government in Germany until May, 1, 1850. The Prussian king met the emperor of Austria at *Töplitz* (September 7) and accepted this agreement. But the rivalry of the two States continued until a permanent settlement could be arranged. The "league of the three kings" was broken up by the secession at Hanover and Saxony, but Prussia adhered to its plan of forming a "Union" apart from Austria. The issue of a new Prussian constitution (February 6, 1850), conciliated the liberal party in Germany, while Austria relied upon the arbitrary tendencies of the princes. On March 20th the second German Parliament met at Erfurt, but it had none of the prestige or independence of its predecessor at Frankfort. It was completely subservient to Prussian influence, and sat only to confirm the projected "Union," which was now joined by Hesse-Cassel, Oldenburg, Baden, Weimar, and other lesser States.

FINAL FAILURE OF THE CONGRESS.

But Austria refused to fall without a struggle from the leading position it had so long held in Germany, and could rely upon the unhesitating support of the four kingdoms and of Russia, which now began to exercise a great influence in German affairs. The ministry of Schwarzenberg took the bold step of summoning the old Bundestag to Frankfort, and the summons was obeyed by all the States which had not joined the "Union." Germany was thus divided into two hostile camps, and only a slight impulse was needed to bring about a civil war. For the moment a conflict seemed inevitable. But in Prussia a strong party had arisen under the leadership of Gerlach, Retzow, and Bismarck-Schönhausen, which disapproved of all the recent acts of the government, and wished to prevent the absorption of Prussia into Germany. The influence of this party, and the intervention of Russia, prevented Frederick William IV from embarking in a war, the issue of which was more than doubtful. A conference at Olmütz ended in the conclusion of a convention (November 29), by which Prussia gave up the "Union," withdrew its protection from the movement in Hesse, and agreed to join a conference at Dresden for the settlement of German affairs.

The conference of Dresden was opened under the presidency of Schwarzenberg on December 23. From the first it was evident that the influence of Russia would be decisive. The motives of the Czar's policy were very simple. He wished to maintain the rivalry of Austria and Prussia, and, by supporting the lesser States to prevent either of them from obtaining increased power. He demanded, therefore, the simple restoration of the old state of things before 1848. This was the net result of the conference, which was closed on May 15, 1850. On the same day a Prussian plenipotentiary joined the Bundestag at Frankfort. Thus the great movement ended in complete failure.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN.

The intricate question of Schleswig-Holstein was still unsettled. In March, 1849, the Danish government declared the truce of Malmö at an end and renewed the war. The German Bund dispatched

45,000 troops to the assistance of the duchies, and the Danes were defeated in several engagements. But a decisive Danish victory at Fredericia (July 6) compelled the acceptance of a truce by which Schleswig and Holstein were separated. The latter duchy, as a member of the Bund, was to remain under the rule of the administrator, but Schleswig was to receive a Danish government, and the German troops were to be withdrawn. A year later this arrangement was confirmed by a definitive treaty between Denmark and Prussia (July 2, 1850). The duchies, however, refused to accept the treaty and continued the war on their own account. But they were defeated in one battle after another, and foreign intervention stepped in to put an end to the contest. At the conference of Olmütz, Austria and Prussia agreed to take joint measures to restore peace in Schleswig and Holstein. Their troops marched into the duchies and compelled the cessation of hostilities. Ultimately the treaty of London (May 8, 1852), signed by England, Russia, Austria, France, Prussia, and Sweden, guaranteed the integrity of the Danish monarchy, the succession to which was promised to Christian of Glücksburg and his male issue. The rights of the German Confederation in Holstein were left undisturbed, and the duke of Augustenburg, whose legal claim to the duchies was arbitrarily disregarded, was obliged to content himself with a pecuniary compensation. Frederick of Denmark granted his subjects a new constitution (October 1855) and allowed Schleswig and Holstein to retain separate provincial estate. But he failed to conciliate the affection of his German subjects, and their discontent survived to be the source of future complications.

KOSSUTH'S CAMPAIGN.

The Austrian Emperor, Francis Joseph, recognized that his first task was the reduction of Hungary, and entrusted Windischgratz with the completion of the work which had been so successfully commenced at Prague and Vienna. The Hungarians refused to accept the abdication of Ferdinand, and the government was still carried on in his name. Kossuth was compelled to adopt this course to conciliate the army and its leader, Gorgey, who were determined not to act as rebels, and had no sympathy with the republican aspirations of the great orator. Windischgratz began the campaign on December 15th, and met with no

real opposition to his early movements. Kossuth's plan was to give up western Hungary to the invaders in order to entice them into the marshy districts of the interior during the winter season. The committee of national defence, of which Kossuth was president, abandoned Pesth, and the city was occupied by the Austrians (June 5th, 1849). From this moment the cause of the insurgents triumphed. Bem, a Polish exile, who had commanded in the recent defence of Vienna and had escaped from the conquerors, was sent to act against the Saxon population of Transylvania, which refused to accept the rule of the Magyars and maintained the cause of the imperial government. By the end of February he succeeded in reducing the whole province. Windischgratz now advanced from Pesth into the interior. At Kapolna (February 26-27th) a two days' battle took place, but the Hungarians retired to the river Theiss. There a number of battles were fought to defend the passage of the river, and everywhere the Austrians were repulsed. Gorgey was now able to take the aggressive, and carried all before him. Windischgratz was recalled, but his successor, Welden, found it necessary to evacuate Pesth. The Hungarians returned to the capital in triumph, and stormed Buda (Ofen) on the opposite bank of the Danube, after a heroic defence on the part of the garrison (May 21st). The Austrian army retreated to Pressburg, in the extreme west of the kingdom. The triumph of the insurgents was celebrated by the declaration of Hungarian independence (April 14th), and the creation of a provisional government, with Kossuth at its head. This bold step destroyed the last chance of a compromise, but at the same time it alienated Gorgey, who henceforth acted in complete independence.

RUSSIAN INTERVENTION.

The Austrian government began to despair of reducing Hungary by its own efforts, and turned for assistance to Russia, the patron of all States contending against revolution. On May 21st, the very day on which Buda surrendered, Francis Joseph met the Czar in a personal interview at Warsaw. Nicholas was afraid lest the success of the Hungarians might provoke a rising in Poland, which was more likely, as many Poles were serving in the Hungarian army, and willingly accorded the aid that was demanded. In June, Paskiewitch entered Hungary with 130,000 men, and the command of the Austrians was entrusted to

Haynau, already notorious for the severity with which he had treated the defeated Italians of Lombardy. The eloquence of Kossuth induced the Hungarians to carry on a desperate guerilla warfare against the invaders. But the contest was too unequal, and the differences between the military and the civil leaders weakened the national cause. At Temesvar one division of the Hungarian army, under Dembinski, was crushed by Haynau (August 9th). Kossuth now resigned his office and proceeded to Transylvania. Gorgey was appointed dictator, but he had already opened negotiations with the Russians, and on August 13th he surrendered with his whole army to General Rudiger at Vilagos. This practically ended the war. Kossuth and Bem fled to Turkey, where the Porte refused to give them up. Kossuth afterward came to the United States. Gorgey was able to secure his personal safety, but the other leaders received scant mercy from Haynau and his military tribunals. Hungary had to pay dearly for its rebellion. It lost all independence and all constitutional freedom, and sank for a short time into a vassal province of Austria.

ANOTHER ITALIAN WAR.

Meanwhile the temporary success of the Hungarians in the early part of 1849 had involved Austria in a second Italian war. All the attempts of England and France to negotiate a final peace between Austria and Sardinia had failed. The government at Vienna refused to entertain any proposal except the complete restoration of Austrian rule and of the government allied with Austria. For Charles Albert to accept these terms, except under the pressure of complete defeat, would deprive the Sardinian monarchy for ever of the respect and trust of Italy. On March 9th the king took the bold step of putting an end to the armistice, which had been prolonged since August, 1848. It was hoped the Austrian arms would be sufficiently employed in the Hungarian war and in the siege at Venice. But Radetsky was confident of success, and hastened to engage in a contest which he hoped would finally settle affairs in Italy. Instead of waiting to be attacked he invaded Piedmont, and in the battle of Novara inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Sardinians, who were commanded by the Polish general Chrzanowski (March 23d). So disastrous was the battle, and so exorbitant the terms proposed by Radetsky, that on the same evening Charles Albert abdicated in favor of his eldest son, Victor Emanuel II., and quitted Italy for

Oporto, where he died on July 28th. The new King was married to the daughter of an Austrian archduke, and had not inspired the same invincible distrust as his father. Radetsky now offered an immediate armistice, on condition that Victor Emanuel should pledge himself to conclude a peace as soon as possible, to reduce his army to a peace footing, and to hand over the fortress of Alessandria to Austrian occupation as a hostage for his good faith. These terms, though far milder than had been offered to Charles Albert, were resented as dishonorable in Turin, and the young King had to enter his capitol by night to avoid the risk of being insulted by his new subjects. Few men could have anticipated that a ruler whose reign began under such gloomy auspices would become before its close the recognized King of a free and united Italy. A revolt in Lombardy which had broken out when hostilities commenced, was put down by the Austrians with prompt severity. Brescia, the only place which made a conspicuous resistance, was stormed by Haynau, whose conduct on this occasion earned for him the name of the "Hyena of Brescia," and a reputation for cruelty which was enhanced by his subsequent deeds in Hungary. The final treaty between Austria and Sardinia (August 6th) restored matters to their condition before the war, the defeated country having to pay an indemnity of seventy-five million francs.

ITALIAN REPUBLICS CRUSHED.

After their success in the North, the Austrians proceeded to complete their work by putting down the revolution in the other provinces of Italy. Entering Tuscany, they occupied Florence, put down the Republic, and restored the authority of the grand duke. Leopold now returned from Gaeta, revoked the constitution which he had granted in the previous year, and restored the old system of absolute rule. Parma, Bologna and Ancona were successively occupied by the Austrians, who would undoubtedly have advanced upon Rome if they had not been anticipated by the French. General Oudinot, with 8000 men, landed at Civita Vecchia on April 5, and at once marched against the city. The republican leaders determined on a desperate resistance, and after seven hours' fighting the assailants were driven back from the walls (April 30). But Oudinot received reinforcements, which enabled him to invest the city with 35,000 men,

and, after resisting for a month, Rome was taken on July 3. Garibaldi, who had been the inspiring leader of the defence, escaped with his devoted followers to the mountains. Oudinot put an end to the Roman republic by establishing a government in the Pope's name, but Pius IX. refused to trust himself to his foreign allies, and continued to reside at Gaeta. Venice was now completely isolated but continued to make a heroic resistance until August 26th, when it was compelled, partly by the bombardment, and partly by famine, to capitulate. Manin, the hero of the short-lived period of liberty, was allowed to retire for the remainder of his life into exile.

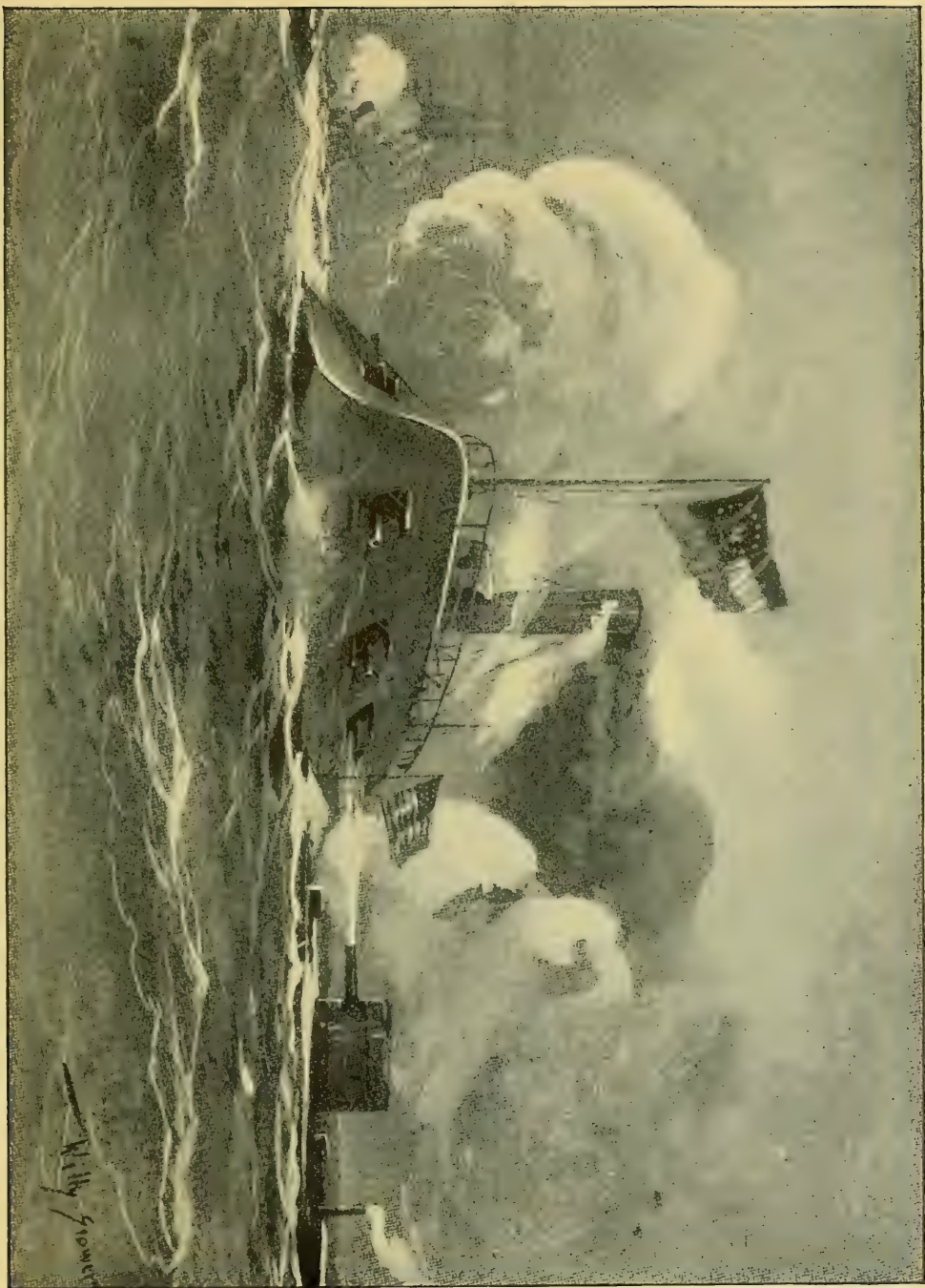
THE TAIPIING REBELLION.

The Taiping rebellion, which broke out in China in 1850, was little noticed by the rest of the world, but was really one of the most colossal and destructive wars ever waged. It was organized by a Hakka school-teacher named Hung Tsu Tseuen, who had received instruction from American missionaries. He gathered about him a vast and heterogeneous army, whose professed object was to expel the Tartar dynasty and restore the true Chinese to power. The rebellion made almost unhindered progress, and in 1853 Hung captured Nanking, the old capital of the true Chinese dynasties, and there established his court as a rival of the emperor at Peking. There he lived and maintained himself, in spite of the utmost effects of the Emperor, for many years. The downfall of his power and suppression of the rebellion belong to a later chapter of this book.

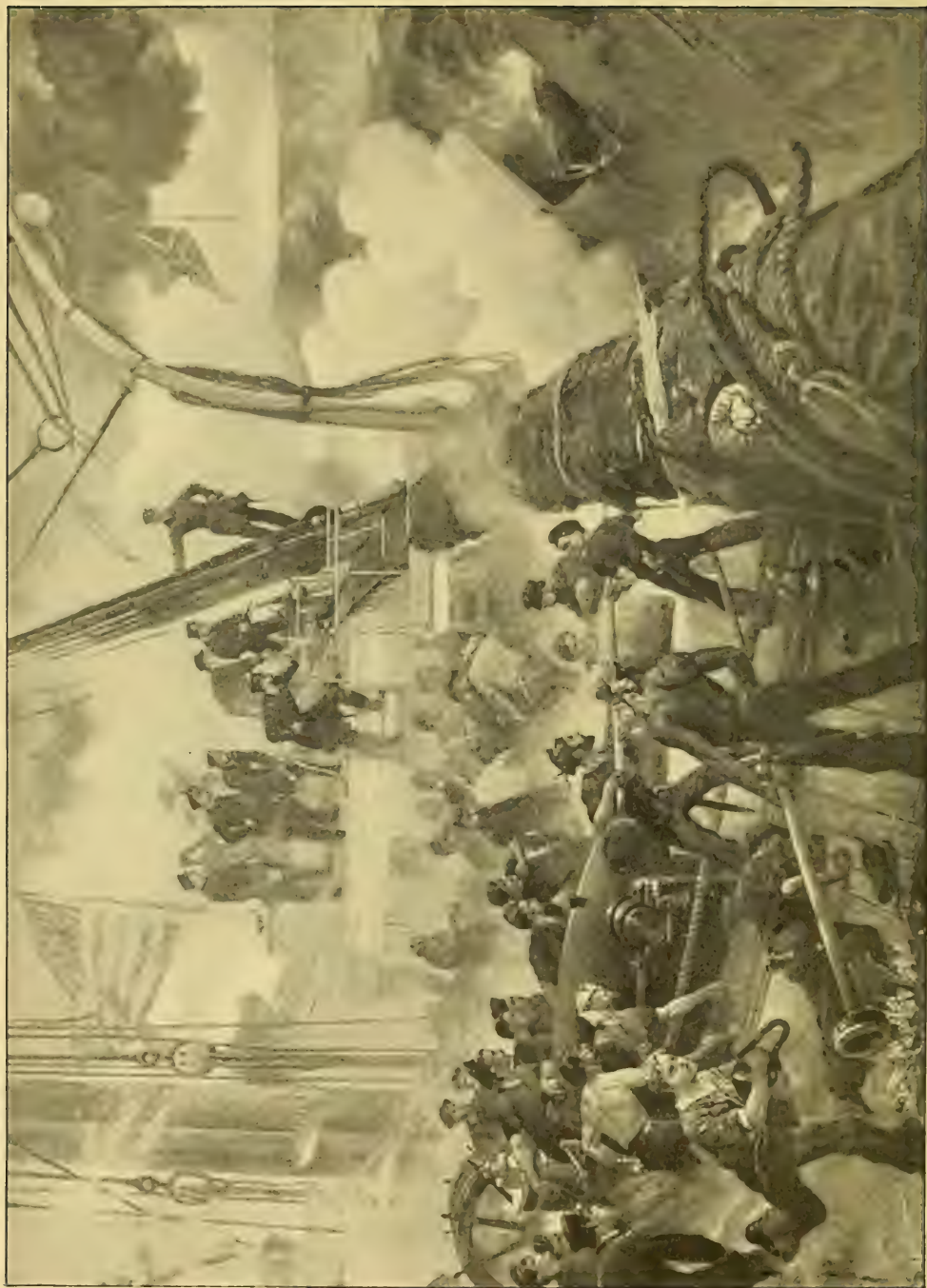
INDIAN AFFAIRS.

We have already told of the two Sikh wars and the annexation of the Punjaub to British India, which occurred in 1849. A second war with Burmah broke out in 1852, on account of the savagery of the reigning King. A British expedition quickly captured Martaban and Rangoon, in April, 1852.

The city of Prome was taken with slight trouble in October, and on December 20th the maritime province of Pegu was annexed by the British, and the King was warned that any further misbehavior on his part would result in the confiscation of all the rest of his dominions.



1862—BATTLE BETWEEN THE "MERRIMAC" AND "MONITOR"



1862—AN AUGUST MORNING WITH FARRAGUT

DEATH OF LOPEZ IN CUBA.

The operations of the filibuster Narciso Lopez in Cuba, in which he had much support from the United States, have elsewhere been noticed. His last expedition to the island was made in 1851, and resulted in his death.

The same year was marked with a Montenegrin uprising against the Turks, and the year following with a similar revolt in Bosnia, neither of which made serious headway or effected important results.

IMPERIAL AMBITIONS.

From the first Louis Napoleon made it his aim to abolish the republic in France and to revive the empire. In complete contrast to Louis Philippe, who had relied upon the middle class, he sought support from the peasants, the army, and the priests.

As the period of presidency was running out, and the constitution prohibited his re-election, it became necessary for Louis Napoleon to take active measures to secure his power. He was always discussing schemes with his associates, but could never make up his mind as to the exact moment for executing them. As his designs became more and more apparent, the assembly began to show distrust and hostility. In January, 1851, General Changarnier was dismissed from the command of the Paris garrison and the national guard, apparently because his regiments had not raised the cry of "Vive l'Empereur!" at the recent reviews. The assembly declared its confidence in the general and its want of confidence in the ministry. This compelled the retirement of the ministers, but their successors were equally docile to the president, and equally unacceptable to the legislature. Petitions got up by Napoleon's agents, poured in from the provinces to demand a revision of the constitution, but the requisite majority of votes in the assembly could not be obtained, and the project was dropped. Napoleon was determined to throw himself upon the support of the people. The assembly had made itself very unpopular by the law of May 30, 1850, which had reduced the number of electors to three millions. The ministers proposed the repeal of the law, but the majority refused to give up their measure. Thus the President posed as the champion of democratic liberties against the oligarchical and reactionary assembly. At last Louis Napoleon considered that his time had come, and

fixed December 2d, the anniversary of Austerlitz, as the date of the long-meditated coup d'etat.

THE COUP D'ETAT.

The necessary preparations had been carefully made by Napoleon's agents, M. de Morny, Generals St. Arnaud and Magnan, and M. de Maupas, the prefect of police. On the night of the first, while suspicions were lulled by a grand party at the Elysee, the troops were distributed, and the necessary placards and proclamations were printed at the government press. The first blow was struck by the imprisonment of the most dangerous opponents. Generals Cavaignac, Changarnier, Lamoriciere, Bedeau, together with Thiers, Victor Hugo, and Eugene Sue, were simultaneously seized in the middle of the night and dispersed to different prisons. In the morning proclamations appeared in all the streets announcing that the National Assembly had dissolved, that a new election was to take place on December 14, that universal suffrage was restored, and that Paris and the Department of the Seine were in a state of siege. A new ministry was announced, in which Morny was minister of the interior; St. Arnaud, of war; M. Rouher, of justice, and M. Fould, of finance. In an "appeal to the people" Louis Napoleon proposed that the executive head of the government should be chosen for ten years, and that a Council of State, a Senate, and a Legislative Assembly should be created on the model of his uncle's constitution of the 18th Brumaire. Meanwhile, about 250 deputies met in the Palais Bourbon, and were preparing a protest against the action of the President, when the hall was surrounded by troops, and they found themselves prisoners. By this act the opposition was deprived of any common centre of union. Isolated revolts took place on the next two days, and the usual barricades were erected, but the troops gained an easy victory, though not without considerable bloodshed. By the evening of the 4th the success of the coup d'etat was secured. The plebiscite was commenced on December 20, and resulted in an enormous majority in favor of the new constitution. The number of recorded votes was 7,439,216 to 646,757. The result of this vote was that Napoleon became President for ten years, and the chief constitutional checks upon his power were removed.

RESTORATION OF THE EMPIRE.

Like all restored Princes, Louis Napoleon was an imitator. On December 2d he had closely copied the 18th Brumaire ; his constitution, which was formally issued on January 15th, returned to the system of the first Napoleon ; the uncle had been Consul, the nephew was President. To complete the external parallel, it was only necessary to get rid of the republican title by reviving the empire, and it was certain that this would not be long delayed. The gold eagles were restored to the standards ; Napoleon's name was substituted for that of the Republic in the public prayers ; the National Guard was re-constituted ; the President took up his residence in the Tuileries. In the autumn Louis Napoleon made a grand tour through the provinces and was everywhere received with shouts of "Vive l'Empereur !" The Senate was directed to discuss the matter, and it was decided once more to have recourse to plebiscite. The proposal was that Louis Napoleon should be chosen hereditary Emperor of the French, with the right of settling the succession among the members of his family. It was carried without a discussion by 7,824,129 to 253,145. On December 2d, 1852, the new Emperor was proclaimed as Napoleon III.

REBUILDING PARIS.

A great revival of material prosperity followed the restoration of order, and the ardent pursuit of money-making proved an excellent salve for political discontent. The constitution of January, 1852, was renewed with a few modifications, which increased the power of the Emperor, and further humiliated the Corps Legislatif. The government adopted the economical fallacy that unproductive expenditure is beneficial to the laborers. A great part of Paris was pulled down to make room for more magnificent buildings. The Rue de Rivoli was extended almost to the Faubourg St. Antoine, and thus was demolished the labyrinth of lanes which formerly surrounded the Hotel de Ville, and made it always liable to a surprise. The first duty of the founder of the new dynasty was to marry. Napoleon began by looking round for a Princess ; but he found the established dynasties so cool in response to his overtures that he determined to conciliate democratic prejudices by an alliance with a subject. His choice fell upon Donna Eugenia di Montijo, the widow of a Spanish general who had fought under Napoleon I., and the marriage was solemnized in January, 1853.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Barth's Explorations in Africa—Necrology—London World's Fair—Gold in Australia—Helmholtz and the Ophthalmoscope—Caloric Engines—Personal—Kossuth and His Visit—Reception in New York—Death of Mr. Clay—His Career at Washington—Death of Mr. Webster—His Early Career—In Public Life—The Great Expounder of the Constitution—Close of His Career—Submarine Boats—Submarine Telegraphy—The Brothers Brett—The First Cable—Triumph at Last—Extension of the System.

ATTENTION was called to the as yet little known continent of Africa at the middle of the century by the explorations of Dr. Heinrich Barth, the German naturalist. His most important journey in Africa was undertaken in company with two other explorers. Upon their death in 1851, however, he pursued his way alone, and during the next four years made one of the most important tours that had yet been effected in the Dark Continent. His observations were of great scientific interest, and did much toward the ultimate opening up of the continent to commerce and civilization. Indeed, his labors may truly be said to have marked the beginning of modern African exploration. The great missionary Livingstone was at the same time at work further south in Africa, and he discovered Lake Ngami in 1849.

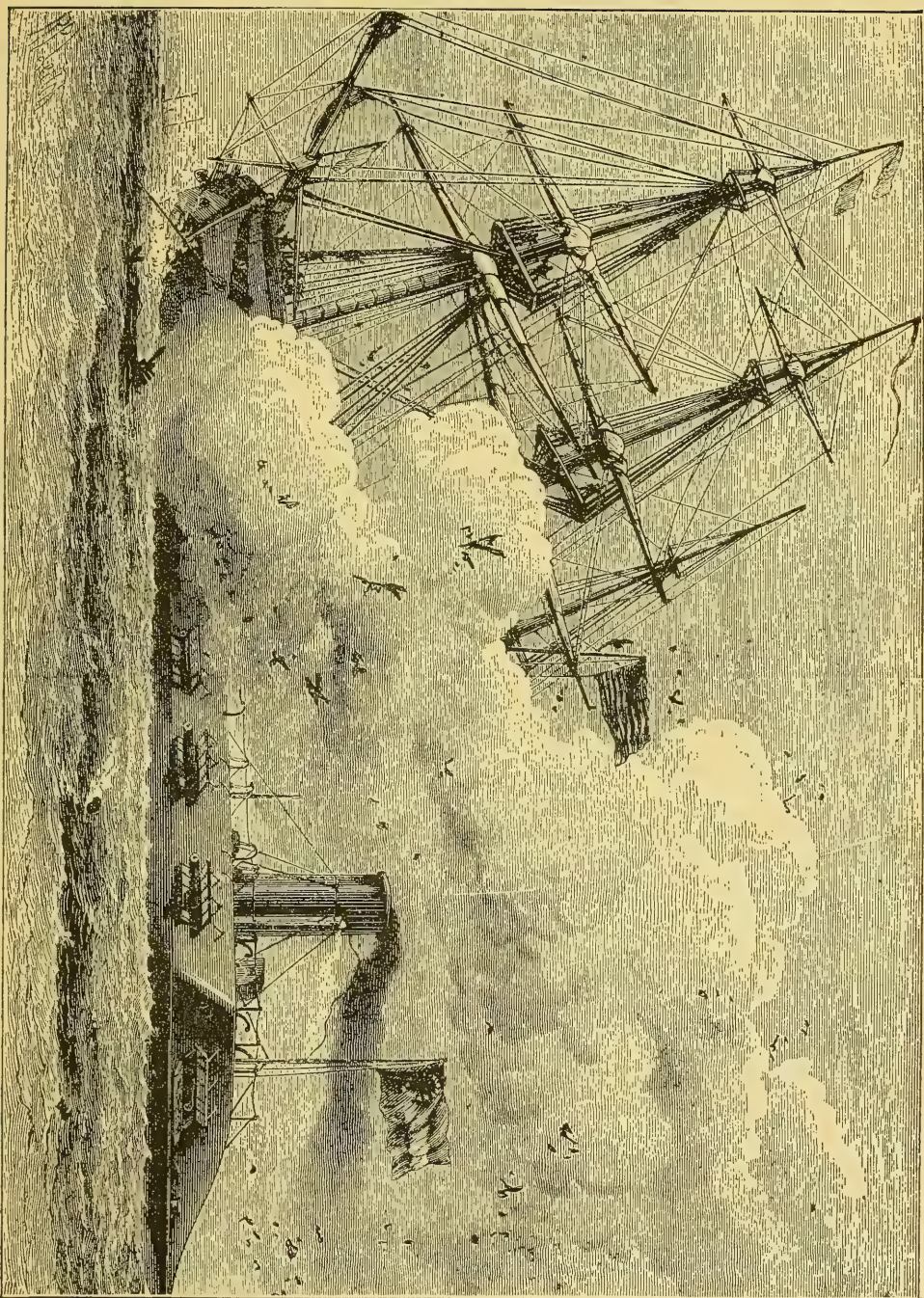
NECROLOGY.

The death of ex-President Polk, of the United States, occurred in 1849. Wordsworth, Poet-Laureate of England and chief of the so-called "Lake School" of poets, died in 1850. Sir Robert Peel died in the same year, having accomplished more for his country than most men of his time. Balzac, one of the world's chief writers of fiction, passed away in 1850, also.

LONDON WORLD'S FAIR.

The opening of the World's Fair in London was an event of universal interest. It was the first of the noteworthy series of such exhibi-

1862—"MERRIMAC" SINKING THE "CUMBERLAND"





1863—BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

tions which has since been held in various capitals of the world. The credit for the suggestion of it, and indeed for the successful execution of the plan, must be given to Albert, the Prince Consort, who was at that time President of the London Society of Arts. An enormous building—for that time—was erected in Hyde Park, constructed entirely of iron and glass, and accordingly known as the Crystal Palace. It covered more than twenty acres of ground. The total cost of the enterprise, including construction of the building, maintenance, superintendence, etc., amounted to nearly \$1,500,000, and the receipts from entrance fees, etc., were more than \$2,500,000. As a business enterprise, therefore, it was a great success, probably greater than any of those that have succeeded it.

Two years later a similar exhibition, though on a smaller scale, was held in New York, in a building also called the Crystal Palace. It was of great service in stimulating industry and art, but was a financial failure. The building was a few years later destroyed by fire, with nearly all its contents.

The year 1853 saw a third World's Fair in Dublin, which was a creditable display of art and industry, but was a financial failure.

The first World's Fair in Paris was opened in 1855 as a private enterprise, but with a Government guarantee against loss.

GOLD IN AUSTRALIA.

We have related the story of the discovery of gold in California in 1849. Two years later, in 1851, rich deposits of the precious metal were discovered in Australia, and a great rush of fortune-seekers to that country ensued, similar to that which had gone to California. The result was the mining of vast quantities of gold from some of the richest fields ever found in the world. But more than that, an impetus was given to the general settlement of Australia and the development of that country into a group of populous and prosperous colonies, which in time were to be united into a single mighty Commonwealth.

HELMHOLTZ AND THE OPHTHALMOSCOPE.

A discovery of even greater value to mankind than all the gold of Australia was made in the same year by a German professor at Königsberg. This was the discovery, or invention, of the ophthalmoscope by Herman Helmholtz. This great scientist reflected one day upon the fact

that while it is impossible in daylight to see clearly into the interior of a room on the opposite side of a street, it is quite easy to do so at night when the interior of the room is artificially illuminated. He observed, also, that it was possible to see the interior of the room plainly by day by the use of a mirror which would throw a strong light into it. These simple observations led him to devise the ophthalmoscope, or eye-mirror, by which instrument the interior of the human eye is brightly illuminated and its thorough examination made possible and easy. This invention revolutionized the science of medicine and surgery so far as it applied to the eye.

Later in his distinguished career at Bonn, Helmholtz made many other scientific discoveries and inventions of great value, and when he died, in 1894, he left a record of usefulness surpassed by but few men of the century.

CALORIC ENGINES.

John Ericsson, the celebrated Swedish engineer, had long been experimenting with caloric or hot air engines, designed to take the place of steam. He had in 1838 invented the screw propellor for steamships, which is now in almost universal use. In 1839 he came to the United States, and in 1843 revolutionized naval warfare by introducing the screw propeller into the United States Navy. In that same year he successfully introduced also the principle of twin screws. Finally, in 1853, he completed a ship, which he named the "Ericsson," propelled by caloric engines. The caloric engine did not, however come into general favor, and Ericsson turned his attention to other things, of which we shall hear more at a later date.

Another engineering enterprise of the highest importance in the same year was the beginning of surveys for a railroad across the United States to the Pacific Coast, which was, however, not to be completed for many years.

PERSONAL.

The death of the Duke of Wellington, in 1852, seemed an irreparable loss to Great Britain, and evoked from Alfred Tennyson one of the finest elegiac odes in the world's literature. The same year saw the death of Thomas Moore, the poet. Audubon, the great naturalist; Cooper, the first great American romance writer; and Turner, one of the world's greatest painters, had died the year before.

KOSSUTH AND HIS VISIT.

The year 1852 was signalized by the arrival in America of Louis Kossuth, accompanied by various other Hungarians, who visited the United States by the invitation of the American Government.

Kossuth was born on the 27th of April, 1802, at Monok, in the county of Zemplin, in Hungary. His parents were of humble origin. He educated himself; and being a young man distinguished for his talents and for great energy of character; and, moreover, inspired with patriotic love for his country, which was suffering and had long suffered under the power of Austria, he enlisted himself with others in schemes for her emancipation. Rising in the estimation of his countrymen, he at length became Governor of Hungary, and in connection with Gorgey, Bem and kindred spirits, seriously attempted to throw off the Austrian yoke, in which, perhaps, they would have succeeded but for the interposition and influence of Russia in favor of Austrian oppression. At length Kossuth and several of his friends were obliged to take refuge in and put themselves under the protection of Turkey.

The knowledge of Kossuth's attempt to liberate his country, in connection with the efforts of other Hungarian patriots, their self-denials, hardships, sacrifices and sufferings in the cause, reached the United States, and kindled a deep sympathy for these down-trodden and self-exiled patriots. The public sentiment in America was on their side, and a desire was aroused in all parts of the land that they should find an asylum on these western shores. Consequently, before the adjournment of Congress in the spring of 1851, a joint resolution was adopted authorizing the President to grant the use of a ship attached to the American squadron in the Mediterranean to transport these Hungarian exiles to this country. Accordingly, on being released by the sublime Porte, they took passage in the steamship "Mississippi" for the American shores. Kossuth and suit, however, stopped in England for a time, and then pursued their voyage to America on board the steamer "Humboldt." They arrived in New York on Tuesday, December 4th. At the request of the Mayor of New York he remained for a day on Staten Island, at the residence of Dr. Doane, until the authorities of New York could prepare for his public reception in that city. Meanwhile the citizens of Staten Island gave him a public welcome. On Saturday he entered the city of New York.

RECEPTION IN NEW YORK.

On the evening of the 12th the corporation of that city entertained Kossuth at a splendid banquet. He made a long and able speech, explaining the purposes which had brought him to this country, and the action which he desired should be taken by the people, and vindicating their propriety and necessity. Three distinct measures he desired. First, a declaration conjointly with England against the interference of Russia in the affairs of Hungary. Second, a declaration that the United States will maintain commerce with European nations whether they are in a state of revolution or not. And thirdly, that the people would recognize Hungary as an independent nation. If these three steps were taken by the people and government of the United States, in concert with those of England, he was confident that Russian intervention would be prevented and Hungary be enabled to assert and maintain her position as one among the independent nations of the earth. He also appealed to the people to aid Hungary in gifts and loans of money. On the evening of Monday, December 15th, the members of the press in the city of New York also gave Kossuth a splendid banquet at the Astor House. This was followed on the 18th by a public reception to him by the bar of New York. On this latter occasion he made a speech devoted mainly to the position that the intervention of Russia in the affairs of Hungary was a gross violation of the law of nations, deserving the name of piracy, and that the United States was bound alike by interest and duty to protest against it. On the 20th he addressed a large company of ladies, in a speech of exquisite beauty and touching eloquence. On the 23d he left New York for Philadelphia, and passing through Baltimore, at both of which places he spent some days, he reached Washington on Tuesday, the 30th, and was received at the cars by a committee of the United States Senate. President Fillmore received him at the Executive Mansion on Wednesday, the 31st, and during the week following he was formally received into both houses of Congress. On the 12th of January Kossuth left Washington for Annapolis, and proceeded thence westward to Cincinnati, visiting Pittsburg, Harrisburg, and other places on his way. Meanwhile public opinion became divided as to the propriety of acceding to his request that this country should take an active part in the struggle of Europe, but there was no difference of opinion as to the wonderful ability which his speeches displayed.

From Washington Kossuth proceeded to visit various places in the South and West, and at length, by invitation, visited Boston, where he had a public reception from the Legislature, and was honored by a legislative banquet in Faneuil Hall. His speeches continued to be devoted to an exposition of the duty of nations to aid each other in their struggles for freedom, and to urging the claims of Hungary upon the people of the United States.

After visiting the principal towns of Massachusetts he had a public reception at Albany, whence he proceeded to Buffalo, Niagara and other cities. At length, returning to New York, he embarked for England.

DEATH OF MR. CLAY.

Henry Clay was born in Hanover County, Virginia, on the 12th of April, 1777. His death took place at Washington, D. C., on the 29th of June, 1852, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. He was the son of John Clay, a Baptist clergyman, in indigent circumstances, who died when Henry was five years old, leaving seven children to the care of a most excellent mother, who ten years afterward again married and removed to Kentucky. Henry remained some years in Virginia, where he devoted himself to the study of law under the distinguished Chancellor Wythe. On receiving a license to practice law in 1797, he removed from Richmond to Kentucky, where he opened an office. His first public station was that of representative in the State Legislature; and while a member of that body he became involved in a duel with Humphrey Marshall, in which both combatants were slightly wounded. The quarrel between these two gentlemen grew out of a resolution introduced by Mr. Clay in which he proposed that each member should clothe himself entirely in American fabrics.

HIS CAREER AT WASHINGTON.

In 1809 Mr. Clay was elected to the United States Senate to fill a vacancy, to which body and for a similar purpose he had been elected in 1806, serving in the latter case only a single session, and from 1809, but two sessions. In 1811 he was elected for the first time to the House of Representatives, of which he was chosen speaker. He was a strong advocate of the war with Great Britain, and to his influence with some few other master-spirits that measure was finally carried. In January, 1813, he resigned his place in Congress in order to proceed to Europe as one

of five commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace, meeting the British commissioners, first at Gottingen, and afterward at Ghent, where a treaty of peace was signed on the 18th of December, 1814. In September, 1815, Mr. Clay returned to the United States, when he found himself re-elected to Congress, of which, on its assembling in December, he was re-chosen speaker. In subsequent years he signalized himself by his earnest advocacy of protection, of home industry, national internal improvements, the recognition of South American and Greek independence, etc., etc.

In 1824 he became a candidate for the Presidency of the United States, in connection with Adams, Jackson, Crawford and Calhoun. The election was finally carried to the House of Representatives, where the choice being confined to Messrs. Adams and Jackson, Mr. Clay decided to cast his influence in favor of Mr. Adams. This decision was deeply resented by the partisans of the disappointed candidates, who charged him for so doing with "bargain and corruption;" especially as he accepted soon after at the hands of Mr. Adams the office of Secretary of State.

In 1831 Mr. Clay was again returned to the United States Senate, where he advocated internal improvements, the re-charter of the United States Bank, and a distribution among the States of the proceeds of sales of public lands for purposes of education and internal improvement. He was again a candidate for the Presidency against General Jackson, the latter of whom, however, proved to have in the sequel an overwhelming majority.

In 1844 Mr. Clay was unanimously nominated for President by the Whig National Convention at Baltimore; but on the occurrence of the election he was defeated by Mr. Polk, who received 170 of the electoral votes, Mr. Clay receiving but 105.

In 1848 Mr. Clay was re-elected to the Senate by the Legislature of Kentucky by a vote nearly or quite unanimous. At the regular session in 1849 he took his seat. At this time, notwithstanding his advanced age, he was erect, buoyant and active, as in his more youthful days. His labors through that long and memorable session were unsurpassed, and his attempts to effect a compromise or adjustment of the question respecting slavery in the Territories, the admission of California, etc., baffled at the outset, were ultimately crowned with success, as we have had occasion to record in a previous page. At the close of the Thirty-

first Congress Mr. Clay returned to Kentucky in feeble health, but returned again to Washington in December. His health, however, was so broken and evidently failing, that he scarcely took his seat in the Senate at all, and was soon obliged to keep to his room, and ultimately, his bed. "Finally, after a protracted struggle between the native vigor of his constitution and the relentless progress of his disease," he finished his course, expressing toward the close of life, as he had often done during the period of his confinement, his hope of eternal life through Him who came to bring "life and immortality to light." He had for several years been a member of the Episcopal Church.

DEATH OF MR. WEBSTER.

Among the most signal events during Mr. Fillmore's administration was the death of Mr. Webster, some account of whom belongs to this place, especially concerning his connection at the time with the Government.

The ancestors of Daniel Webster came originally from Scotland. His father, grandfather and great-grandfather were named Ebenezer, and were descendants of Thomas Webster, one of the earliest settlers of New Hampshire. His father was for several years a member of the Legislature of New Hampshire, and died while discharging the duty of judge of the Court of Common Pleas. He was a man of superior intellect. His mother was Abigail Eastman, a lady of Welsh extraction, and distinguished for her powers of mind. She was the mother of five children, two boys, Daniel and Ezekiel, and three daughters.

Daniel Webster was born on the 18th of January, 1782, in the town of Salisbury, Merrimack County, then Hillsboro, New Hampshire. The house where he was born is still standing, about two and a half miles from the beautiful Merrimack River, and in the immediate vicinity of a log cabin, which his father built, and the first ever erected in that section of country.

HIS EARLY CAREER.

Mr. Webster was first taught the letters of the alphabet by his mother, who treated him with partial kindness because of his feebleness when a child. From her lips also he first received the vital truths of the Bible, and from her hands the first copy of the sacred volume he ever owned. The men who had the honor of the first teaching in a

public manner this afterward distinguished individual were Thomas Chase and James Tappan, the latter of whom died in 1852, at Gloucester, Mass., at a very advanced age. As late as July of that year Mr. Webster remitted from Boston twenty dollars to his then aged and infirm schoolmaster, accompanied by a letter in which he said, "I came to-day from the very spot in which you taught me, and to me a most delightful spot it is. The river and the hills are as beautiful as ever, but the graves of my father and mother, and brothers and sisters, and early friends, gave it to me something of the appearance of the city of the dead. But let us not repine."

Mr. Webster's advantages of early education were exceedingly slender. In summer he worked on the farm, and in winter only went to school. The principal district school that he attended was three miles from his father's residence, and his path thither was often through deep snow. When fourteen years old he spent a few months at Philips' Academy, Exeter, then under the care of Dr. Benjamin Abbots. While here he was first called upon to speak in public on the stage. But the effort was a failure. The moment he began he became embarrassed and burst into tears. In after years he said of himself: "Many a piece did I commit to memory and recite and rehearse in my own room, over and over again, yet when the day came, when the school collected to hear the declamations, when my name was called, and I saw all eyes turned to my seat, I could not raise myself from it." At fifteen he entered Dartmouth College, where he pursued his studies in a manner highly creditable to himself and gratifying to his friends. He was graduated in 1801; but so disappointed was he in not receiving what he thought he was entitled to of the honors of the college, that at the conclusion of the commencement exercises, he deliberately tore up the diploma which had been bestowed upon him, exclaiming as he threw it to the winds, "My industry may make a great man, but this miserable parchment cannot," and immediately mounting his horse, departed for home.

IN PUBLIC LIFE.

The following year he taught an academy at Freyburg, Maine, and then betook himself to the study of law, first in Salisbury and then in Boston, in the office of Christopher Gore, afterward Governor of Massachusetts; was admitted to the bar in 1805; practiced a short time in

Boscawen, N. H.; removing whence in 1807 to Portsmouth, he married next year Grace Fletcher, of Hopkinton, N. H., by whom he had four children, of whom but one, Fletcher, survived him. The mother died suddenly while on her way, with her husband, to Washington late in 1828.

Mr. Webster continued the practice of law in Portsmouth for nine years, where he acquired a very extensive practice and an enviable reputation. In 1812 he was elected for the first time to Congress, after a most violent contest. In Congress he arose at once to a high rank among parliamentary debaters. He opposed the invasion of Canada, but strongly advocated the enlargement of the navy and the prosecution of the war on the ocean. In August, 1816, he removed to Boston, where in his practice as an advocate and lawyer he often came in contact with such men as Dextor, Prescott, Otis, Sullivan, Shaw, Gorham and Hubbard. His fame as a jurist was greatly increased by his defence of Dartmouth College against the assumptions of the Legislature of New Hampshire, to alter and modify its charter at pleasure; a claim which was sustained by the courts of New Hampshire, but overruled by the United States Supreme Court on Mr. Webster's argument in 1818.

" THE GREAT EXPOUNDER OF THE CONSTITUTION."

In 1829 he delivered his famous speeches against Mr. Hayne on the right of a State to nullify an act of Congress. These were, perhaps, the greatest intellectual achievements of his life. They practically settled the question of nullification in all time to come. Mr. Webster continued a member of the Senate till March 4, 1841, and was a leading participant in the discussions growing out of the attempted re-charter of the United States Bank, Tariff Compromise of 1834, the Removal of Deposits, the Specie Circular, the Expunging Resolutions, etc. From an original free-trader, he became a warm and impressive advocate of Protection to Home Industry, regarding the policy of the country as settled by the acts of 1824 and 1828, and the interests thereby called into existence justly entitled to legislative support. He therefore opposed the Tariff Compromise of 1834, which nevertheless prevailed.

On the election of General Harrison to the Presidency, Mr. Webster became Secretary of State, a post which he continued to occupy until late in 1842. While Secretary he negotiated with Lord Ashburton the

treaty of Washington, by which he settled the north-eastern boundary of Maine. He now retired to private life for a season, but in 1845, on the retirement of Mr. Choate, he was again elected to the Senate. In 1846 he advocated the Oregon boundary treaty; in 1848 he spoke against the claim of the South to extend slavery into the new Territories. He was in favor of the compromise measures which were designed as an adjustment of exciting questions between the North and the South; he believed in the necessity and importance of the fugitive slave law as a means of maintaining the peace and integrity of the Union.

In 1836 Mr. Webster was, for the first time, proposed as a candidate for the Presidency. Massachusetts gave him her electoral votes, but he received the votes of no other State. Again, in the year 1848, his name was submitted to the Whig National Convention at Philadelphia, as it was also in 1852 to the Whig National Convention at Baltimore. But in the former Convention his vote was less than thirty, and in the latter it did not exceed on any one ballot thirty-three.

CLOSE OF HIS CAREER.

On the accession of Mr. Fillmore to the Presidency in 1850, Mr. Webster was again called to the Secretaryship, an office which he continued to hold till his death.

In the summer of 1852, his health requiring relaxation and repose, he left Washington for his country residence at Marshfield, Mass., where soon after he was severely injured by being thrown from his carriage. From the effect of this fall he never recovered, but continued to decline until the 21st of October, when his state became alarmingly dangerous. His death occurred on the morning of the Sabbath, December 24th, a little before 3 o'clock. When informed that his death was rapidly approaching, he bade each of his family and friends an affectionate farewell, and invoked upon them the richest of heaven's blessings. In a full and clear voice he then prayed fervently for all, concluding his prayer impressively as follows: "Heavenly Father! forgive my sins and welcome me to Thyself through Jesus Christ."

He died of disease of the liver. On a post-mortem examination the cerebral organ was found to exceed by 30 per cent. the average weight of the human brain; and with but two exceptions, Cuvier and Duypuytren, the largest of which there is any record.

SUBMARINE BOATS.

In 1847 Dr. Payerne, a Frenchman, commenced certain experiments with a diving machine, out of which eventually grew the design of a navigable submarine vessel driven by steam, patented in 1854. On the surface the steam could be generated by an ordinary boiler and furnace; when submerged by a tubular boiler with an internal furnace, hermetically closed, the principle of which has been adopted with modifications by succeeding inventors. The purification of the air was effected by a current of water allowed to run through a lower compartment, when a trap in the bottom was opened for external operations; or by an alkaline mixture, composed of slaked lime and potash; and also, if necessary, by prepared oxygen, thus affording a sufficient supply for three men for five hours. A lateral door gave exit to workers in diving armor for outside operations.

From 1850 to the present year the number of patented designs for submarine boats, of which only a small percentage have ever been tried, has multiplied at an astonishing rate. Very few of them present any features of interest, practicability, or real novelty. In 1851 Bauer, an ex-sergeant of the Bavarian artillery, built a boat for the Schleswig-Holsteiners with the idea of blowing up the Danish blockaders anchored of Sundevad, but a severe frost compelled the Danes to sheer off, and nipped his project in the bud. His boat was built of cast-iron plates, but these, as well as the pumping apparatus for admitting and forcing out the water, were not strong enough for the strain put on them. A pair of gutta-percha gauntlets fastened over arm-holes in the top of the boat afforded a clumsy means for the operator to affix a torpedo, fired by a Voltaic battery to an enemy's ship. This crude piece of naval architecture was subsequently tried in Kiel harbor, and dived with great readiness to the bottom, where the pressure of the water started the plates, thereby nearly drowning the inventor and his two companions.

During the progress of the Crimean War, the late Mr. Scott Russell designed a submarine boat, so-called, with the aid of which it was intended to blow up the obstructions at the mouth of Sevastopol Harbor. Lord Palmerston took much personal interest in the matter, and authorized a grant of £7000 from the Treasury for its construction and trials. The boat was called the "Nautilus," and did not commend itself to the com-

mittee of naval officers appointed to report on it. According to the late Admiral Sir Cooper Key, who was on the committee, it was merely a large diving-bell or inverted boat, and its behavior during the trials at Portsmouth was extremely uncanny. It never got so far as the Crimea, as the war was over before it was quite ready for service, and it ended its days harmlessly in the yard at Millwall.

SUBMARINE TELEGRAPHY.

We have now to record the auspicious date on which the possibility of sending telegraphic messages for any long distance under the sea was first firmly established. On August 28, 1850, telegrams passed between Dover and the coast of France through a make-shift cable, coated with gutta-percha; and what had been held by nearly every one to be a wild dream became an accomplished fact. Of course there had been for many years previously scientific men ahead of their time who felt certain that it could be done. As far back as 1795 a Spanish engineer had suggested it. All through the first half of the century experiments had been going on. In 1813 signals were transmitted through seven miles of wire laid down at the bottom of a pond. In 1838 a British royal engineer officer had some success with a cable insulated by means of tarred rope and yarn solidified with pitch. Split rattan canes were also used as insulators. Professor Wheatstone, who, with Mr. Cooke, had in 1837 first introduced the land telegraph into England, had also been making trial of a submarine system. He had laid a cable in Swansea Bay and had succeeded in connecting the lightship with the shore. But all these attempts fell short of any wide practical result. Submarine telegraphy was not put into actual operation until the brothers Brett came upon the scene.

THE BROTHERS BRETT.

Jacob Brett was an electrician full of ideas. John Watkins Brett was a clear-headed, long-sighted man of business. In 1845 they were discussing the recently-established land telegraph between London and Slough. Why, they asked, should not similar communication be carried on under the sea? They were not the sort of men to ask questions, and, like jesting Pilate, not wait for an answer. They set to work to prove that what they suggested could be done. In June, 1845, losing no time, they registered a project for an Atlantic cable, and they also offered

to connect Dublin Castle with Downing street if the British Government would advance £20,000. The British Government would have little to say to them. They did get leave to lay a submarine telegraph from Dover, if they could, but they obtained no pecuniary assistance. So they turned their attention to foreign States. In 1847 they received permission from King Louis Philippe to land a cable laid under the English Channel on the coast of France. Before they could mature their plans the revolution of 1848 had driven Louis Philippe from the throne, and it was necessary to obtain a concession from the republic. Prince Louis Napoleon, President of the republic, granted their concession; and in June, 1850, it was transferred to a small company, consisting of Mr. J. W. Brett, Mr. (afterwards Sir) Charles Fox, Mr. Francis Edwards and Mr. Charles J. Wollaston, on the understanding that the cable should be laid down by September 1st of that year. Of these four pioneers, who each subscribed £500 for the purpose of the experiment, Mr. Wollaston is still alive, hale and hearty in a green old age. He has not made a fortune out of his share in the plucky enterprise, but he enjoys a British Civil List pension granted in recognition of his services to electricity, and he can look back with a feeling of pride upon his close connection with so momentous an undertaking. For it was Mr. Wollaston who acted as the engineer to the company and actually directed the laying of the first cable. Part of his electrical talent he had inherited. He is the nephew of Wollaston, the famous philosopher, who introduced the Wollaston electro-chemical cell. He had also been a pupil of Brunel, who, by the way, refused altogether to believe in the feasibility of the submarine scheme. Meeting his pupil at the time when every one was ridiculing the idea, he said gravely, "I hear, Wollaston, you have something to do with this. I'm sorry for it." And when his pupil inquired the reason for this discouraging address, the great man said, with emphasis: "It can't succeed, can't succeed." It is only fair, though, to add that, as soon as Wollaston had proved that it could succeed, Brunel congratulated him warmly, and, realizing at once what its success meant, declared that "nothing could stop it from going all over the world."

THE FIRST CABLE.

But to go back to June of 1850, as soon as the final concession had been made by President Louis Napoleon, Mr. Wollaston, who had gone

to Paris to receive it, hurried back to England. Less than three months remained for all the preparations to be made. As soon as he touched British soil he telegraphed to the wire cable makers and to the gutta-percha company and arranged for the supply of the materials. Both undertook to deliver them in good time. The next thing was to devise some means of playing out the cable from a ship's deck. Mr. Wollaston for this purpose had made to his order a large drum or wheel. Upon this the twenty four miles of wire covered with gutta-percha were wound, and then it was placed in position upon the deck of the tug "Goliath." At last everything was ready. On the morning of August 28th the tug was at Dover. A coil of wire was twisted round a pile belonging to the harbor works (just where the Admiralty Pier now stands), and then carried up above to a horse-box, which the South-Eastern Railway Company had lent the Submarine Cable Company to serve as their Dover office. The end securely fixed, the tug started off in a straight line for Cape Gris Nez. The cable, weighted with small pieces of lead to keep it down, was sunk without accident, and the other end was made fast in an old custom house that stood on the French cliffs.

TRIUMPH AT LAST.

Now came the moment of painful suspense which was to decide whether the promoters' pains and anxieties were to be rewarded. Considering, in the light of our fuller knowledge, the imperfect insulation and the simple method of keeping the cable down and the strain that was put upon the unsupported gutta-percha wire, it seems a wonder that the experiment succeeded at all. But succeed it did, and proved that the promoters had, so far as they could, gone the right way to work. The instrument in the horse-box at Dover Railway Station clicked out a message to Louis Napoleon, congratulating him upon the happy result of the experiment. It was sent with misgiving, for the senders could not tell whether it would ever reach the other side. Nervously and impatiently they waited, and then to their intense joy the needle moved again, and they knew that twenty-four miles away across the sea their message had been safely received. Their labors had borne fruit. They had done what very few believed they could do. The possibility of telegraphing under the sea was established; and, as "The London Times" said in a leading article a few mornings afterwards, "the jest or

scheme of yesterday" had become "the fact of to-day;" "the wildest exaggeration of an Arabian tale" had been "outdone by the simple achievement of modern times."

All the same, the "fact of to-day" early became in its turn the "jest of to-morrow." The cable very soon refused to work, and on August 31st its brief career was ended. A Boulogne fisherman picked up a piece of it in his trawl-net, and, making sure that it was some new kind of seaweed or coral, or a section of some marvelous sea-snake, he cut it open to see whether it had "gold at its centre." He was disappointed, but he carried off the strange object to Boulogne, and the life of the earliest submarine cable came to an inglorious end. However, the great thing was that the success of the experiment had been duly attested. Ten independent persons on the French side had signed a report to the effect that messages had passed to and fro, and this was sent to Louis Napoleon. An unfair attempt was made to wrest the concession from the pioneer company on the ground that their cable was not permanent. Louis Napoleon, however, expressed both surprise and indignation at this endeavor to rob them of the fruits of their enterprise, and granted a fresh concession for permanent communication to be established by the end of October, 1851. To work this concession there was formed the Submarine Telegraph Company. They duly laid down a four-wire cable, with strong wire insulation, made on the same principle as that now in existence, and on November 13, 1851, it was opened for public use.

EXTENSION OF THE SYSTEM.

The possibility of submarine communication having been proved, its extension was merely a matter of time. It was, however, a matter of a good deal of time. In 1853, after three failures, the connection that Mr. Brett had proposed eight years before was made between England and Ireland; and in the same year the Dover-Ostend cable was laid and opened. In 1854 began the sinking of a series of cables in the Mediterranean. These operations were much hindered by several untoward and alarming "flights of cable," that is to say, by the cable getting out of hand and running off the drums at a terrific speed. On one occasion two miles of cable, weighing sixteen tons, flew into the sea in the course of four or five minutes. It was not until 1856 that the Atlantic Telegraph Company was formed, and not until 1858 was communication established.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Franklin Pierce Becomes President of the United States—Walker in Nicaragua—Anti-Slavery Power in Congress—Ostend Manifesto—Reciprocity with Canada—Squatter Sovereignty—Protests Against Extension of Slavery—The War in Kansas—Organizing the Kansas Government—Anti-Slavery Agitation—"Under-Ground Railroad"—The Sumner-Brooks Episode—Know-Nothing Party—The Republican Party—The Koszta Incident—Perry in Japan.

IN 1853 Mr. Fillmore was succeeded by Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate, as President of the United States, who received 254 electoral votes. General Winfield Scott, the Whig candidate, received 42 votes. President Pierce in his inaugural address, maintained the recognition of slavery by the Constitution, and the constitutionality of the fugitive slave law ; and he denounced in strong terms political agitation on the subject of slavery ; yet public measures were soon adopted which tended greatly to increase this agitation.

WALKER IN NICARAGUA.

After the termination of the war between the United States and Mexico, several lawless military expeditions (commonly styled filibustering expeditions) were made against Nicaragua, and some of the other countries of Central America.

These expeditions were regarded with favor by many of the people of the Southern States, and pecuniary aid was furnished by some of their wealthy men. The pretended object was to rescue these countries from tyranny, domestic and foreign ; and it was also designed to introduce slavery.

The most noted leader in these enterprises was William Walker, a native of Tennessee , and the most considerable of the expeditions was made in 1855 against Nicaragua. Walker made himself master of the country, and after holding it for some time, he was finally expelled by the union against him of the other States of Central America. In this expedition more than 3000 men miserably perished.



1863—BATTLE OF CHATTANOOGA



1863—LINCOLN DELIVERING HIS FAMOUS ADDRESS AT GETTYSBURG

In Walker's last expedition he landed near Truxillo, in Honduras, took the fort on the 6th of August, 1860, and he was shot on the 12th of the following month.

ANTI-SLAVERY POWER IN CONGRESS.

At the assembling of the Thirty-fourth Congress on the 3d of December, 1856, there was an unprecedented struggle for the choice of a speaker, which lasted till the 2d of February, nine weeks, and, after 133 ballotings, resulted in the choice of Nathaniel P. Banks, the candidate of the Free State and Anti-Slavery men, who was elected by 103 votes, 100 votes being cast for William Aiken.

OSTEND MANIFESTO.

In October, 1854, a conference was held at Ostend, at which Mr. Buchanan, American Minister to England, Mr. Mason, Minister to France, and Mr. Soulé, Minister to Spain, were present; and it was proposed by them to purchase the island of Cuba from Spain for \$120,000,000, and in case of her refusal to sell the island, to take it by force. This proposition was favored by the people of the Southern States, but was strongly disapproved by the people of the free States.

RECIPROCITY WITH CANADA.

Two important measures of this administration were the Reciprocity Treaty between the United States and Great Britain, providing for a commercial reciprocity between this country and the British-American Provinces; and the establishment of a Court of Claims at Washington.

SQUATTER SOVEREIGNTY.

In January, 1854, Mr. Douglas, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, introduced a bill for the organization of the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, in the country west of the State of Missouri, and north of the parallel of 36° 30'. By the Missouri Compromise slavery had been formally and forever excluded from this region; but by this bill, which was supported by the administration, the Missouri Compromise was repealed, and slavery was permitted to enter these territories.

Mr. Douglas, who was a Senator from Illinois, and a man of unusual ability and fervent patriotism, had devised what he deemed was an effec-

tive scheme for settling the slavery controversy, so far as the territories were concerned. He proposed to apply to the territories the principle of local option, or home rule. Let the settlers of each territory, he said, decide for themselves whether they will have slavery or not. This scheme became popularly known as "squatter sovereignty," and the adoption of it led to a stampede of transient settlers into Kansas for the purpose of mustering votes upon the slavery question. The New England Abolitionists sent thousands of men thither, each carrying "a Bible and a rifle," and the slaveholders of Missouri also poured a vast tide of their retainers into the same territory.

PROTESTS AGAINST EXTENSION OF SLAVERY.

The introduction of this bill soon excited the strong opposition, throughout the free States, of those who were opposed to the further extension of slavery; and in the month of March following, a memorial, protesting against its passage, signed by 3000 New England clergymen of different religious denominations, was presented to the Senate; but it was passed by that body, on the 26th of May, by a vote of 35 to 12. It was passed in the House of Representatives by a vote of 113 to 100.

This measure caused a great excitement in the free States; it was denounced as a flagrant breach of faith, and a violation of what was regarded as a sacred compromise; and it led to a disastrous and sanguinary contest between those who advocated and those who opposed the establishment of slavery in these territories.

This unhappy contest continued during the administration of Mr. Pierce and that of his successor, Mr. Buchanan.

THE WAR IN KANSAS.

Soon after the passage of this act large emigrations were made from the free States, with the design of making Kansas a free State. At the same time great efforts were made to establish it as a slave State by emigrants chiefly from the State of Missouri, many of them taking their slaves with them. A violent and sanguinary contest soon ensued between the advocates and the opponents of slavery; and the grossest frauds were committed in several of the subsequent elections for the choice of public officers, and also for the choice of delegates for the formation of a constitution.

Large bodies of armed men from Missouri, who have commonly been styled "Border Ruffians," formed into regiments, entered the territory in order to frustrate, by military force, the purpose of those emigrants who designed to establish Kansas as a free State, and a considerable number of lives were sacrificed in the conflict.

ORGANIZING THE KANSAS GOVERNMENT.

The first Governor of the territory was A. H. Reeder, of Pennsylvania, who arrived in October, 1854; and an election for a delegate to Congress was held in November, but a great part of the votes were cast by persons from Missouri, who were not residents of the territory, and a majority of the votes were found to be illegal.

In March, 1855, an election was held for choosing members of the Territorial Legislature. It was found that, of 6218 votes cast, only 1310 were legal, and of these 791 were given for the free State candidates.

Wilson Shannon, of Ohio, was appointed Governor in place of Reeder, and assumed office on the 1st of September. Delegates were chosen to a Constitutional Convention that assembled at Topeka, and, in November, promulgated a constitution, in which slavery was prohibited; but the Topeka Constitution was never carried into effect.

In August, 1856, Shannon was succeeded in office by John W. Geary, of Pennsylvania, who found the territory in a very disturbed condition, and after various conflicts and ineffectual endeavors to restore order, he demanded the removal of Lecompte, the District Judge of Kansas, for gross misdemeanor; but Lecompte, being sustained by a majority of the United States Senate, Governor Geary resigned his office in March, 1857, and Robert J. Walker, of Mississippi, was appointed in his place by Mr. Buchanan, who had now become President.

ANTI-SLAVERY AGITATION.

Agitation against the slave system, and especially against the fugitive slave law of 1850, continued and steadily increased in vehemence, especially in New England. In 1854 a negro named Anthony Burns, who had escaped from slavery in Virginia, was arrested in Boston, and was confined in the court-house under a strong guard. Forthwith a meeting of citizens was held in Faneuil Hall to consider the question whether his return to bondage should be permitted. At the same time

an attempt to rescue Burns was made by a party of citizens led by a clergyman, the Rev. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, who afterwards commanded the first body of negro troops in the Civil War. The door of the court-house was broken down, and in the affray one of the deputy marshals guarding Burns was killed, but the attempt at rescue failed. Burns was afterward escorted by a strong military guard to a vessel and shipped back to Virginia. It was with difficulty that the people of Boston were restrained from violence and insurrection over this incident.

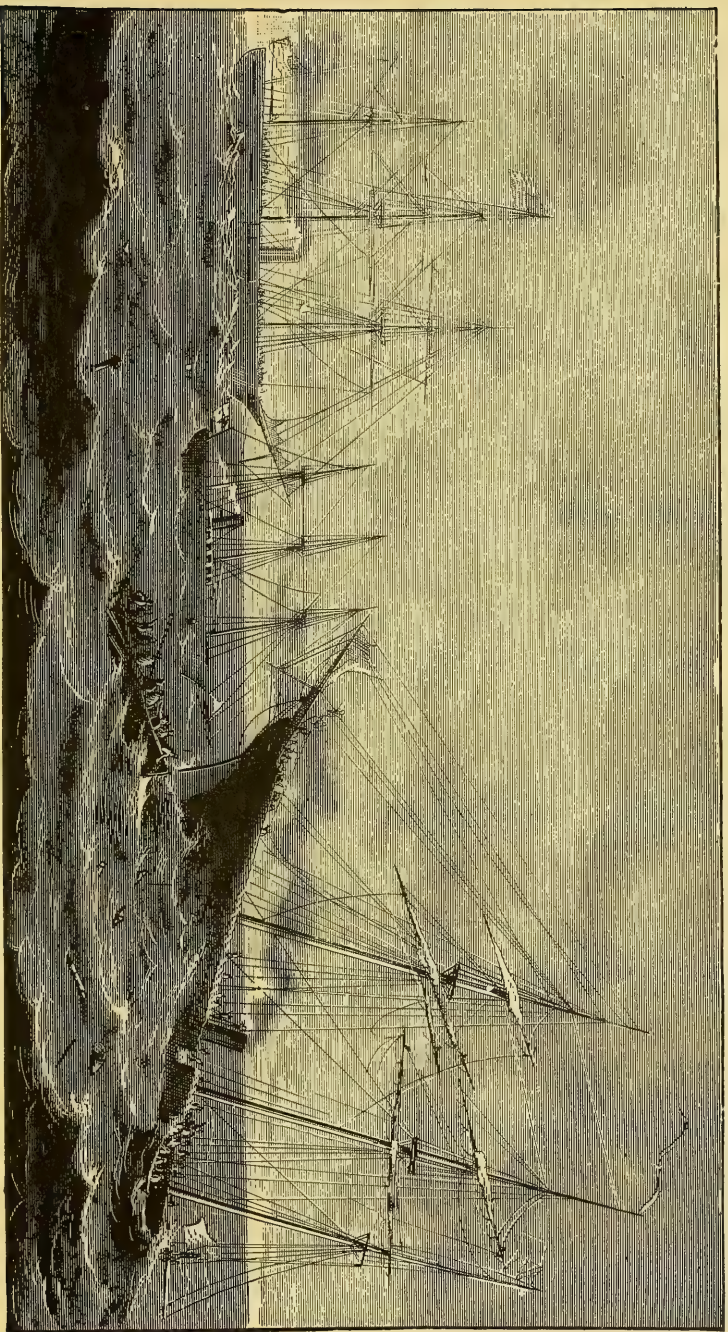
A potent factor in this agitation was the famous book, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," published in 1852, and which now gained a phenomenal circulation.

"UNDERGROUND RAILROAD."

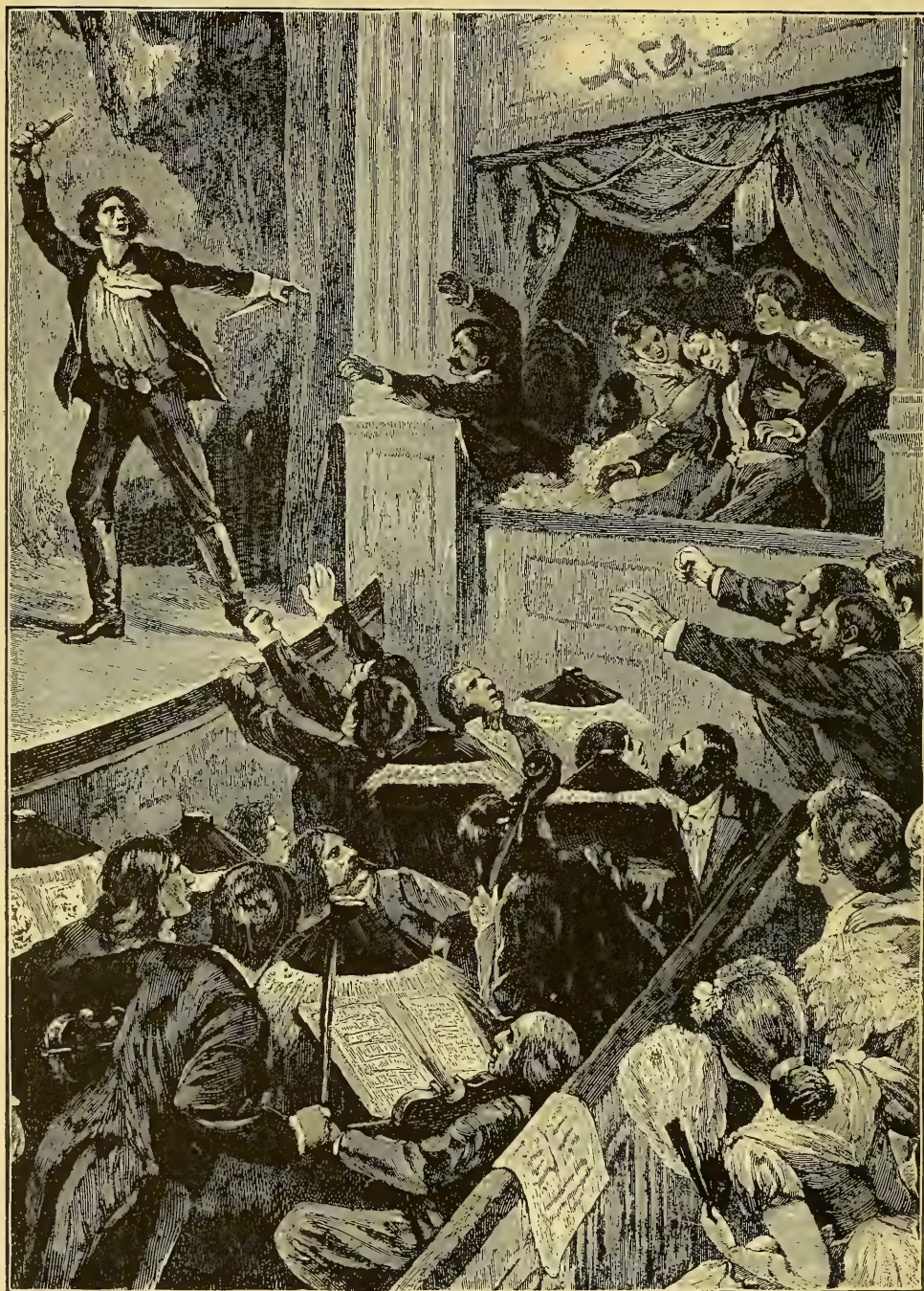
The opponents of slavery were not content with trying to prevent the enforcement of the fugitive slave law. They organized an elaborate system for nullifying it and for assisting fugitive slaves to make good their escape. Secret understandings were maintained among men in the cities and towns of the north, so that fugitives could be passed along from one to another, until the Canadian border line was reached, across which, of course, no slave hunter could follow. So perfect was this system, and so successful was it in forwarding a steady stream of runaway slaves, that it came to be known as "the underground railway."

THE SUMNER-BROOKS EPISODE.

Among the most conspicuous anti-slavery men in Congress was Charles Sumner, a Senator from Massachusetts. He was a man of commanding ability, and was particularly aggressive and exasperating in his attacks upon the pro-slavery party. On May 19 and 20, 1856, he made a powerful speech on the troubles in Kansas, in the course of which he indulged in some personal strictures upon Senator Butler, of South Carolina. Two days afterward Preston Brooks, a nephew of Butler and a Representative in Congress, entered the Senate Chamber, stole up behind Sumner and struck him repeatedly over the head with a heavy cane, nearly killing him. For this act an attempt was made to have Brooks expelled from Congress, but it failed. Thereupon Brooks resigned and sought a vindication of his constituents. He was re-elected by a practically unanimous vote. Anson Burlingame, a friend of Sumner, challenged Brooks to fight a duel, but Brooks declined.



1864—SINKING OF THE "ALABAMA" BY THE "KEARSARGE" OFF THE COAST OF FRANCE



1865—ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN

KNOW-NOTHING PARTY.

We must mention in passing the formation and career of the Know-Nothing party. This had its origin a few years before this administration, when the great influx of immigrants from Ireland began. It was feared by many that these foreigners would become a disturbing and mischievous factor in United States politics. Accordingly a movement was organized to exclude them from political office, and to secure the enactment of laws making it less easy for them to become naturalized. This organization was made as a secret society, of the aims and acts of which the members professed to know nothing. Their organization was the nucleus from which arose the American party, which in 1855 was sufficiently strong to carry the elections in nine States.

THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

Meantime the old Whig party was rapidly disintegrating, and from its ruins was formed the new Republican party. This party opposed Douglas' principle of "squatter sovereignty" and insisted upon the maintenance of the Wilmot Proviso, and the exclusion of slavery from the Northern Territories. The Republican party held its first National Convention in 1856, and nominated as its candidate for the Presidency General John Charles Fremont, the explorer of the Rocky Mountains and conqueror of California. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan, one of the authors of the Ostend Manifesto, a Northern man, but a friend of the South and of slavery, and stood upon the principle of "squatter sovereignty." The American party nominated Millard Fillmore. A vigorous campaign was prosecuted, which resulted in the election of Buchanan, who had 174 electoral votes. Fremont, however, had 114 votes, and an enormous popular vote which presaged success for the Republicans in the near future. Fillmore received 8 electoral votes.

Before leaving the Pierce Administration we must note the Gadsden purchase, by which a considerable strip of land south of New Mexico and Arizona was purchased from Mexico. In 1853, moreover, the Hawaiian Islands made formal application to be annexed to the United States. The application was rejected, but the principle was established that those islands were within the American sphere of influence, and were **not to be molested or annexed by any European power.**

THE KOSZTA INCIDENT.

Pronounced American sympathy with the Hungarians, and the great popular and official greeting given in the United States to Kossuth had put something of a strain upon relations between the United States and Austria, and in 1854 this strain came perilously near the breaking point. One Martin Koszta, a Hungarian refugee, had filed in 1852 his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States. This was the first step toward naturalization, and according to American practice, entitled him to American protection. In 1854 he had occasion to visit the port of Smyrna, in Asia Minor, on business. There, at the instigation of the Austrian Consul-General, he was seized by the crew of an Austrian warship that happened to be in the harbor, and was put into a cell, heavily ironed. This was done in spite of his claim of American protection, and in spite of the fact that he had an American passport in his possession. The American authorities at Smyrna made demand for his release. This was refused by the Austrians. The captain of an American warship in the harbor, Captain Ingraham, thereupon gave the Austrians notice that if Koszta was not released by a certain hour, he would use force for his release, and at the same time he ordered the decks of his ship to be cleared for action. The Austrians were at first defiant, but when they saw the American guns trained upon their ship, and realized what the firing of a shot would mean, they yielded. Koszta was surrendered by them to the French Consul-General, and shortly afterward was permitted to return to the United States.

PERRY IN JAPAN.

The story of the "opening" of Japan properly belongs to the history of that island Empire. At this point, however, it is appropriate to recall that the memorable deed was performed in July, 1853, by Commodore Perry, of the United States navy. Without the firing of a shot he compelled the Japanese Government to abandon the seclusion of centuries, and to open its realm to friendly intercourse with the rest of the world. The United States made the first treaty with Japan on May 31, 1854.

CHAPTER XXIX.

**Marriage of Napoleon III—The Crimean War—Invasion of the Crimea—
The Charge of the Light Brigade—Inkerman—Sufferings of the
Troops—Ministerial Changes in England—Redan and Malakoff
—Terms of Peace—Turkish Reforms—Revolution in
Spain—British War with China—Opening of
Japan—Minor Incidents.**

THE marriage of Louis Napoleon, or Napoleon III, as we must now call him, undoubtedly enhanced his popularity among the French. But something more was needed to establish his place securely among the hereditary sovereigns of Europe, and that was a great war in which he should be the ally of some other great powers. This want was soon supplied in the Crimean War.

In 1852 an old dispute about the custody of the Holy Places in Jerusalem had been revived. Louis Napoleon, then President of the French Republic, had put himself forward as the champion of the Latin Christians, and obtained for them from the Porte the right of free entry to the Sepulchre, which had been contested by the Greek monks. The Czar Nicholas, as the head of the Greek Church, considered himself aggrieved by this decision. The weakness of Turkey seemed to offer a convenient opportunity for carrying out those aggressive designs which the Czar had never ceased to cherish, even when he joined England in supporting the Porte against Mehemet Ali. The opposition of England might be bought off. In January, 1853, Nicholas disclosed his plans in two important interviews with Sir Hamilton Seymour, the English Ambassador. Without circumlocution he suggested that the two powers should divide between them the territories of the Sultan. The Danubian Principalities, Servia and Bulgaria, were to be formed into independent States under Russian protection; England might annex Egypt, so important for the route to India, and also Canada. "If England and myself can come to an understanding about this affair, I shall care very little what the others (*i. e.* France, Austria and Prussia) may think or do." Such was the Czar's boast. England declined the proposal, and excited the Czar's indignation by publishing Seymour's despatches.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.

In March Prince Menschikoff appeared in Constantinople, and arrogantly demanded from the Porte the recognition of a Russian protectorate over all Turkish subjects belonging to the Greek Church. Abdul Medjid replied by offering to secure the rights of the Greek Christians by charter, but refused to do so by treaty. Menschikoff withdrew after presenting an ultimatum, and the Russian army, under Gortschakoff, crossed the Pruth (July 3, 1853) to occupy Moldavia and Wallachia as a guarantee for the fulfilment of Russian demands. The Porte treated this as an act of hostility, and declared war against Russia (October 1st). Omar Pasha, a Servian renegade in the Turkish service, won a conspicuous victory at Oltenitza (November 4th). Napoleon III seized the opportunity to secure his recently established Empire by embarking in a great war and by obtaining the countenance and support of England. The two western powers concluded a treaty with the Porte (November 27th), and promised their assistance if Russia would not accept peace on moderate terms.

The destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope by Admiral Nakhimof destroyed the last chance of terminating the contest by diplomacy. The French and English fleets entered the Black Sea, and the Russian admiral had to retire to Sebastopol.

In 1854 France and England declared war against Russia. Austria and Prussia remained neutral, but agreed to oppose the Russians if they attacked Austria or crossed the Balkans. The Czar found himself completely isolated in Europe, the result in great measure of the haughty attitude which he had assumed in recent years. By sea the allies had an overwhelming superiority, but it proved of little use to them. In the Black Sea they blockaded Odessa, but in the Baltic they found Cronstadt too strong to be attacked, and had to content themselves with the capture of Bomarsund. It was obvious that Russia could only be seriously attacked by land. In April the Russians, under the veteran Paskiewitsch, had laid siege to Silistria, but all attempts to storm the fortress were foiled.

In July the siege was raised, the Principalities were evacuated, and Austria undertook their occupation by a convention with the Porte. Meanwhile the French and English armies, under St. Arnaud and Lord Raglan, had landed at Gallipoli and proceeded to Varna.

INVASION OF THE CRIMEA.

Finding the war in the Principalities settled without their intervention, the allies determined to transfer the scene of hostilities to the Crimea and to attack Sebastopol. They landed without opposition at Eupatoria (September 14th), and the battle of the Alma (September 20th) opened the way to the great fortress. A vigorous pursuit of the Russians might have taken Sebastopol at once, but the delay enabled Menschikoff to make elaborate preparations for defence. The siege lasted for more than twelve months, and absorbed the interested attention of Europe. The allies suffered terribly from the severity of the climate and from the defective organization of the commissariat. At the same time they had to resist the constant efforts of the Russian field army to interrupt the siege operations. The first of these led to what is spoken of as the battle of Balaklava. It really consisted of a series of somewhat isolated cavalry operations by the Russians against the Balaklava end of the allied line, which was defended by British, French and Turks. The attack of the Russians effected nothing of importance; but three incidents of the day will always be remembered with pride by the British army. Near Balaklava itself, the 93d Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, were charged by a body of Russian cavalry, and repelled them in line by a volley without taking the trouble to form square. The next was the charge of the Heavy Brigade of cavalry under General Scarlett. In this Scarlett, with 300 horsemen, charged a body of halted Russian cavalry, numbering between two and three thousand men, and cut his way almost through it. Fortunately other regiments were brought up in support, and the whole Russian mass of cavalry broke up in disorder and fled from the field.

THE CHARGE OF THE LIGHT BRIGADE.

Even this magnificent feat of arms was thrown into the shade by the romantic episode of the Light Cavalry charge. This arose out of a mistake. Lord Raglan, standing on the heights above the field, could see that the Russians were carrying off seven British guns which had been lent to the Turks, and lost by them, so he sent orders to Lord Lucan, who commanded the cavalry, to try and save the guns. Lord Lucan being on the plain, and not seeing as well as Lord Raglan; rather naturally asked, "What guns?" Nolan, the Aide-de-Camp sent with

the message, said merely, but probably somewhat forcibly, "The enemy is there, and there are your guns." This Lucan understood to refer to a battery not of British, but of Russian guns, and he ordered Lord Cardigan, with the Light Brigade of 673 men, to charge these guns. Though to obey it seemed certain death, the order was obediently carried out. The guns to be charged were at the end of a valley two miles long, and on the slopes at each side of it, to right and to left, were Russian batteries. Nevertheless, as steadily as on parade, Lord Cardigan and his gallant followers rode off down the valley. For some moments the Russians were dumbfounded at their audacity, but soon a hundred guns were firing on the devoted horsemen. Nevertheless the brigade actually reached the Russian battery, and even passed it, but their efforts were perfectly useless, and, after suffering terribly, the survivors fought their way back as best they could. Two hundred and forty-seven men were killed or wounded, with a much larger number of horses. Had it not been for a well-directed charge of the French, who silenced the batteries at one side of the valley, a much larger number would have perished. "It is magnificent, but it is not a war," said a French looker-on from the height; and, from a military point of view, it was a gross blunder. Nevertheless, as teaching a permanent lesson of unquestioning devotion to duty, it cannot altogether be regretted; and its memory will always remain a glorious heritage for the British army.

INKERMAN.

A few days later the infantry had its opportunity for distinction. On November 5th the Russians attempted an attack upon the opposite end of the allied line on the heights of Inkerman, occupied solely by British troops. According to their plan a sortie from Sebastopol was to assault the extreme end of the allied line, and at the same time a body of troops from Menschikoff's army was to assault the position in flank. The attack was made in the early morning, when the slopes were covered with mist. The natural way to repel such an attack was for the outlying pickets to fall back on the main body, and so concentrate on some defensible position; but, partly through the mist, and partly through the unwillingness of the British to retreat at all, the battle took the form of the outlying positions being defended, and the pickets reinforced from the main body. Such a method of fighting was contrary to all rule, and in-

involved the greatest risk, for had the Russians broken through any point, the whole defence must have collapsed. Luckily for the British the mist stood them in good stead by preventing the Russians from seeing the exact state of affairs; and the tenacity and courage with which all ranks fought were beyond praise. The loss, however, was most serious, and had it not been for the French, who moved up troops in sufficient numbers to give an effective support to the scattered British regiments, it is difficult to see how the Russian masses could in the long run have been defeated by such a method of fighting. Nevertheless, victory declared for the allies, and had the French been willing to engage in a vigorous pursuit, the Russian defeat might have been converted into a rout.

SUFFERINGS OF THE TROOPS.

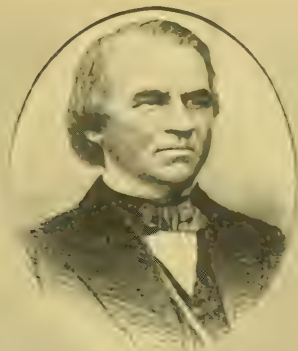
After the battle of Inkerman the Russians gave up for a time their operations in the open field, but their inaction gave little respite to the allied troops. The necessity for engaging in a prolonged siege had entirely altered the character of the campaign and compelled the allies to winter in the Crimea. For this they were totally unprepared. Losses by battle and sickness had reduced the strength of the British contingent to 16,000 men, a number so small as to throw upon individuals a disproportionate amount of work, and reinforcements were slow in coming. The distance of the British camp from Balaklava, some ten miles, traversed by a miserable road, made it hard to get supplies. In a terrible storm on the 14th of November, two vessels, one containing warm clothing, the other ammunition, were sunk in Balaklava harbor. The winter proved to be exceptionally severe; and it was hard for the troops, camped on a wind-swept plateau, or shivering in the wet trenches, to keep themselves warm. All these things would have tried the resources of any country; and they proved far too severe for the British ministry of Lord Aberdeen. Forty years of peace seem to have been fatal to the efficiency of the British War Department. The most grotesque blunders were committed. A consignment of boots, all for the left foot, was sent out because the Ministers had provided no efficient way of checking the stores. No care was taken even to see that those who were to superintend the hospital knew their business. Medical stores were sent out in abundance, but men were allowed to die for want of them, because no official authority had been given for serving them

out. No proper appliances for cooking their rations were given to the soldiers ; and lastly, while sending out horses and mules for the transport service, the British Treasury refused to send out any hay on which to feed them. Moreover, the officers and men themselves did not show the resources they might have done in coping with the difficulties, and the condition of the army became pitiable in the extreme. It is true the French were nearly as bad off, but as there were more of them, work fell heavily on them as individuals ; and the French soldiers certainly showed more skill than the British in making themselves comfortable under difficulties.

MINISTERIAL CHANGES IN ENGLAND.

Doubtless there had been other campaigns where the British troops had had to bear similar hardships ; but in former days the exact state of the army was little known at home, except to the authorities. In the Russian campaign for the first time the special correspondents of newspapers, and especially Dr. William Russell, of the London "Times," kept the public thoroughly informed of what was going on. The natural result was an outburst of vehement indignation against the Government. Of this, Mr. Roebuck made himself the mouthpiece, and carried a proposal to the House of Commons that a commission should be appointed into the conduct of the war. The proposal was regarded as a vote of want of confidence in the Government. Lord Aberdeen at once resigned, and his place was taken by Palmerston.

What the country really wanted was to have a strong man at the head of affairs. It had no confidence in Lord Aberdeen ; it did believe in Lord Palmerston ; and as soon as he was at the head of affairs, confidence was restored. Nevertheless the House was determined to have its commission of inquiry, and Mr. Gladstone and other Peelites, who had at first retained office under Lord Palmerston, decided to resign. The commission did much good ; and its report should be a warning to Governments for all time. Its inquiries showed distinctly that the mismanagement complained of was to be traced, not so much to the faults of individuals, as to the absurd system by which Great Britain had allowed the machinery for making war to grow rusty and obsolete in time of peace, and also to the foolish arrangement by which sub-division of responsibility was carried so far as to make it almost impossible to say who was really to blame for any particular mistake or omission. Without



ANDREW JOHNSON



JAMES A. GARFIELD



ULYSSES S. GRANT



GROVER CLEVELAND



RUTHERFORD HAYES



CHESTER A. ARTHUR



BENJAMIN HARRISON



1868--INDIANS ATTACKING AN OVERLAND COACH

waiting for the report, however, Lord Palmerston's Government worked hard to improve the existing state of affairs. Even before the fall of Lord Aberdeen, Mr. Sidney Herbert had persuaded Miss Florence Nightingale to go out to Constantinople and see what could be done for the reorganization of the nursing in the hospitals there ; and the Duke of Newcastle had suggested to the Cabinet the construction of a railway to bring stores from Balaklava to the camp. From Miss Nightingale's reports Lord Palmerston learned what should be done, and so energetic were the steps taken that, whereas under Lord Aberdeen the deaths in the hospital at Scutari had been 50 per cent. of those admitted, under Lord Palmerston they were enormously reduced. The railway also from Balaklava—the necessity for which should have been obvious to any Government—was at once made by the new ministers. Energy and order were infused everywhere ; and before summer the efficiency of the army in the Crimea had been restored, though at the best it was so small that henceforward the French took perforce the leading part in all military operations. They even took over from the British the north-eastern end of the trenches, and the attack on the Malakoff and Little Redan. In January, 1855, the allied forces were strengthened by the arrival of 18,000 Sardinian troops under La Marmora.

REDAN AND MALAKOFF.

The disasters of 1854 were a bitter humiliation to Nicholas, and probably hastened his death, which occurred on March 3, 1855. His successor, Alexander II, was more pacifically disposed, and it was hoped that his accession might lead to the conclusion of peace. But the military honor of the allies could only be satisfied by the capture of Sebastopol, and hostilities were soon renewed. The English fleet rendered conspicuous service by destroying the Russian base of supplies, but the garrison, which was now commanded by Gortschakoff, held out with unflinching courage. A grand assault, in which the English attacked the Redan and the French the Malakoff, was repulsed with great loss (June 18). The French were now commanded by Pelissier, who had superseded Canrobert, the successor of St. Arnaud. On the death of Lord Raglan (June 28), General Simpson undertook the command of the English army. Although the two armies supported each other with creditable loyalty, there can be no doubt that the dual command was a great obstacle to the success of the besiegers. On August 16th a Russian at-

tack was repulsed with great loss on the Tschernaya, a battle in which the Sardinian contingent distinguished itself. The allies had at last succeeded in bringing a superior force of artillery to bear upon the fortress, and on the 17th the final bombardment was commenced. For twenty-three days the batteries kept up an almost incessant fire, which inflicted terrible damage. On September 8th a terrible assault was ordered. The French stormed the Malakoff, but the English, after carrying the Redan, were compelled to retreat for want of support. The Russian position, however, was no longer tenable, and on the 10th Gortschakoff evacuated Sebastopol and retired to the north side of the harbor.

The success of the allies was by no means complete. The Russians still occupied a very strong position, and the war might have been indefinitely prolonged if the people had not begun to murmur at the heavy burdens imposed upon them. The fall of the Asiatic fortress of Kars (November 28, 1855) was a salve to the military vanity of Russia. Austria undertook to mediate; the basis of a pacification was agreed upon in January, 1856, and an armistice was concluded. A conference met at Paris, where the final treaty was signed on March 30th.

TERMS OF PEACE.

The Russian protectorate over the Danubian Principalities was abolished; the free navigation of the Danube was to be secured by the appointment of an international commission; the Black Sea was neutralized, and all ships of war, including those of Turkey and Russia, were to be excluded, except a small number of light vessels to protect the coasts; the Sultan undertook to confirm the privileged of his Christian subjects, but the Powers agreed not to use this as a pretext for interfering with his domestic administration; the convention of 1841 about the Straits was confirmed; and the Porte was to be admitted to all the advantages of public law and the European concert. Russia agreed to restore Kars and to retire from the Danube by ceding a strip of Bessarabia to Roumania, while the allied were to evacuate Sebastopol and all other conquests in the Crimea. These terms were accepted by six powers, viz.: France, Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia and Sardinia. A fortnight later France, Austria and Great Britain concluded a separate agreement to guarantee the independence and integrity of the Turkish Empire. In 1858 the signatories of the treaty of Paris arranged a convention to settle

the relations of Moldavia and Wallachia. They were to be ruled by separate princes, who were to be chosen by the assembly of each principality, and they were to pay a tribute to the Porte. But the two principalities elected the same prince, Alexander Cusa, and in 1659 the convention was modified to allow them to become one State under the name of Roumania. In 1866 Prince Alexander was deposed and Roumania fell under the rule of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

TURKISH REFORMS.

The Hatti Humayoun, or Imperial Proclamation of the Turkish Government, was issued on February 18, 1856. This forbade in general terms all discriminations against Christians, or distinctions in civil affairs between the followers of the two religions, and it opened the military service of the Empire, even in the highest grades, to Christians. This latter provision was bitterly opposed by both Christians and Mohammedans, but was insisted upon by the Sultan. Despite this decree, however, the hostility of Turkey toward all foreign Christians steadily increased. Outbreaks occurred against the latter in various parts of the Empire, and it became evident that intervention would again be necessary.

REVOLUTION IN SPAIN.

The tortuous current of Spanish politics led to another revolution in July, 1854. In 1851 the Government had signed an agreement with the Pope, by which all schools were placed under the control of the church, and all newspapers and other publications were subjected to priestly censorship. It was also proposed to make such amendments to the constitution as would annul the power of the Cortes and make the sovereign practically absolute. Against these things the army and the workingmen of the large cities combined in a successful revolution, and for two years Espartero and Marshal O'Donnell conducted the Government on a more liberal basis. Indeed, O'Donnell remained Prime Minister until 1863.

BRITISH WAR WITH CHINA.

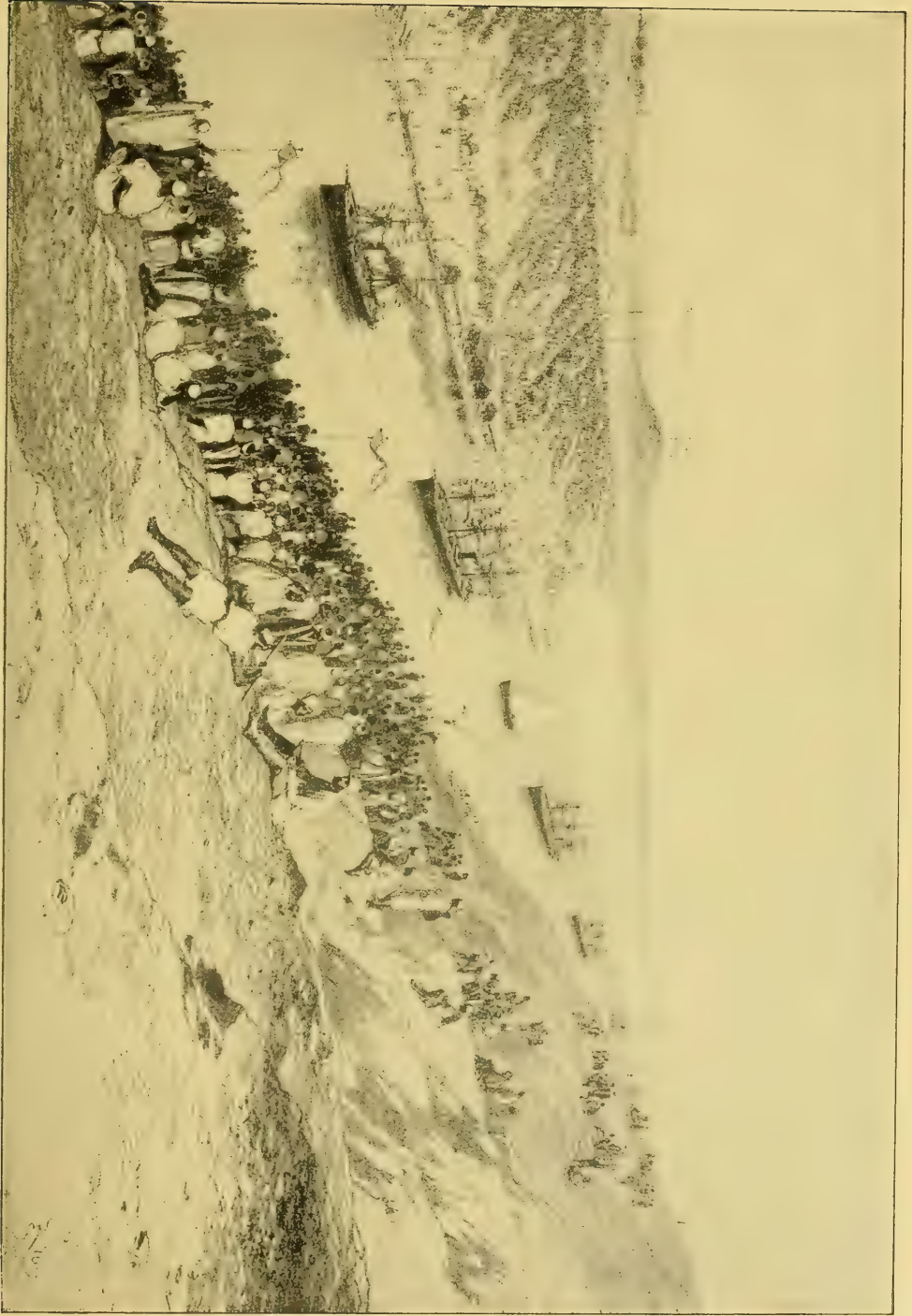
Great Britain's second war with China was due to the overbearing policy of Lord Palmerston. France readily allied herself with Great Britain, and a joint expedition was sent to the Chinese coast, of which we shall hear more in a subsequent chapter.

OPENING OF JAPAN.

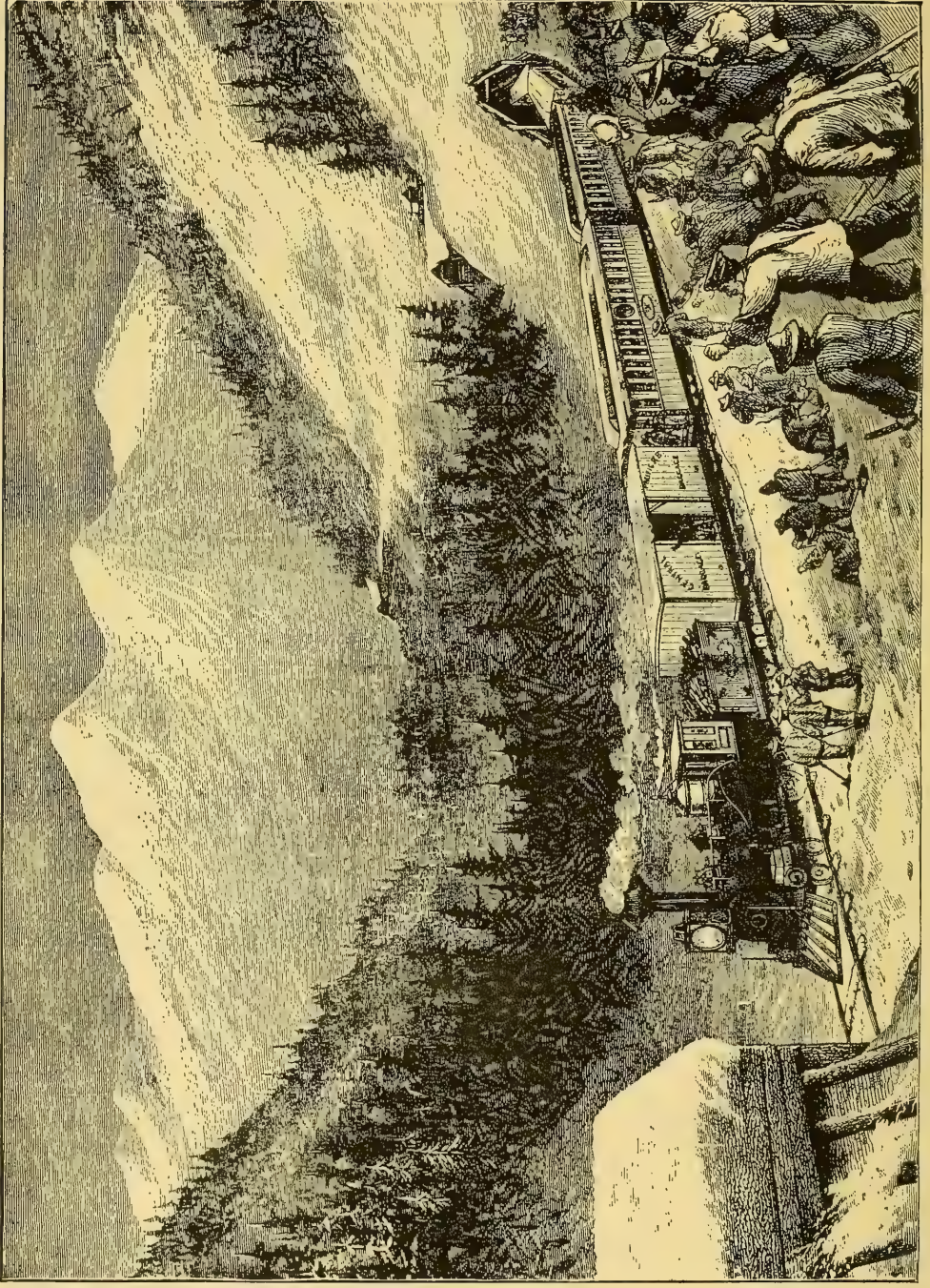
Down to the time of which we are writing Japan had been practically a closed country, having little intercourse with other lands, and treating with savage inhospitality all foreigners who strove to enter the island Empire. The task of breaking down the barriers of seclusion was undertaken by the United States. On July 8, 1853, an American fleet of warships suddenly, without warning, appeared in the bay of Yeddo, and its commander, Commodore Perry, demanded to be placed in conference with the highest dignitaries of the Empire. A letter which he bore from the President to the Emperor was delivered. Then he sailed away, but returned the next spring for an answer to the letter. The answer was favorable, and on May 31, 1854, the first treaty between Japan and a foreign power was signed. Under its provisions the two ports of Shimoda and Hakodate were opened to American commerce, an American consul was permitted to reside at Shimoda, and Americans were allowed to enter and travel in the country to a certain extent. Similar treaties were soon made with other nations, and thus Japan was opened to friendly intercourse with the world.

MINOR INCIDENTS.

We may also note in passing the accession of Said Pasha as Khedive of Egypt, in succession to Abbas, in 1854, the establishment of the Orange River Free State in the same year, the British annexation of Oude in 1856, and the war between Persia and Great Britain, which began with Persia's invasion of Afghanistan in 1856, and ended in British success in the following year. In 1854 Russia continued her Central Asian aggressions by wresting a highly advantageous treaty from the Khan of Khiva, which made him practically a vassal of Russia.



1869—FIRST STEAMERS PASSING THROUGH THE SUEZ CANAL



1869—OPENING THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILWAY

CHAPTER XXX.

**Doctor Kane's Search for Franklin—The North-West Passage—New York
Crystal Palace—Livingstone's Explorations—His First Work in
Africa—Important Discoveries—Crossing the Continent—
Victoria Falls—Niagara Suspension Bridge—
Various Incidents.**

THE labors of Arctic research, to which we have already alluded, were continued pretty persistently after the disastrous adventure of Sir John Franklin. Conspicuous among the expeditions which went to the North to seek tidings of Franklin were those sent out by Mr. Grinnell, a merchant of New York. The first of these was fitted out in 1850, in the ships "Advance" and "Rescue," under the command of Lieutenant De Haven. The surgeon and naturalist of this expedition was Elisha Kent Kane, a physician who had already had a romantic and distinguished career as a scientific explorer in various lands. The expedition was absent sixteen months, and found no trace of Franklin. On his return Dr. Kane wrote an interesting account of the expedition and also put forth his theory of an open Polar sea. At his earnest solicitation a second expedition was fitted out by Mr. Grinnell, Mr. Peabody and others. It sailed in the ship "Advance" in June, 1853, and two months later reached Rensselaer Bay, on the coast of Greenland. There the ship was left, and the explorers proceeded with boats and sledges. During the first winter a latitude of 79 deg. 50 min. was reached, though at the cost of terrible suffering. During the second year the explorers stuck manfully to their work, despite famine and disease, and made scientific observations—magnetic, meteorological, astronomical and tidal—incomparably surpassing in completeness and value all that had gone before. Indeed, this was the first great scientific expedition.

One of Dr. Kane's comrades, Mr. Morton, went up Kennedy Channel as far as latitude 81 deg. 22 min., and there saw what he and Kane firmly, though erroneously, believed to be the open Polar Sea. On May 17, 1855, the ship was abandoned and an overland retreat made to Upernavik, which place was reached in August. Dr. Kane

published an account of his expedition, in two volumes, which was down to that time the most interesting and important contribution made to Arctic literature. Dr. Kane, whose health was always fragile, died in 1857, at the early age of thirty-seven, leaving a name that must always stand in the foremost rank of Arctic explorers.

THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE.

Meantime others were busy looking for the North-West passage which had lured Franklin to his fate. A British expedition led by McClure had spent the winter of 1850-51 at the Princess Royal Islands, only thirty miles from Barrow Strait. He ascended a hill whence he could see the frozen surface of Barrow Strait, which had been navigated by Parry thirty years before. Thus he discovered the North-West Passage, though he did not navigate it. It was impossible to reach it, for the palæocrystic ice which had baffled Franklin was before him, barring further progress of his ship. In 1851, therefore, McClure turned to the south, and made his way around Baring Island. The voyage was one of great difficulties and dangers. For a long distance they sailed along a narrow passage, with the rocky cliffs of the shore rising perpendicularly at one side, and the palæocrystic ice rose in a solid wall at the other side, as high as the ship's yards. A trip was made on land across Melville Land, and then, in the spring of 1853, McClure prepared to abandon his ship and beat a retreat in boats, but happily was reached by a relief party in time.

The explorations of McClintock, Rae, Inglefield and others were conducted during the years 1853-59, and added much to the world's knowledge of the frozen realm of the far North.

NEW YORK CRYSTAL PALACE.

We have elsewhere spoken of the opening of the World's Fair in the Crystal Palace in New York City. This famous building stood on what is now known as Bryant Park, at Sixth avenue and 40th-42d streets. That locality was then suburban and semi-rural, though now in the heart of the city. An interesting indication of the growth of New York since that time is to be had in the fact that the newspapers of the day referred to the "enormous throngs of people" who were present at the inaugural ceremonies of the Crystal Palace, adding that they must have numbered as many as 2000 souls!

The first World's Fair in Paris was held in 1855, being gotten up by Louis Napoleon to strengthen the hold of his new Empire upon the affections of the pleasure-loving people.

LIVINGSTONE'S EXPLORATIONS.

While men were busy exploring the Arctic regions, one of the world's greatest explorers was busy in the lands under the equator. David Livingstone (1813-1873), missionary and explorer, was born on March 19, 1813, at the village of Blantyre Works, in Lanarkshire, Scotland. David was the second child of his parents, Neil Livingston (for so he spelled his name, as did his son for many years) and Agnes Hunter. His parents were poor and self-respecting, typical examples of all that is best among the humbler families of Scotland. At the age of ten years David left the village school for the neighboring cotton mill, and by strenuous efforts he qualified himself at the age of twenty-three to undertake a college curriculum. He attended for two sessions the medical and the Greek classes in Anderson's College, and also a theological class. In September, 1838, he went to London, and was accepted by the London Missionary Society as a candidate. During the next two years he resided mostly in London, diligently attending medical and science classes, and spending part of his time with the Rev. Mr. Cecil at Ongar in Essex, studying theology and learning to preach. He took his medical degree in the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons in Glasgow in November, 1840. Livingstone had from the first set his heart on China, and it was a great disappointment to him that the Society finally decided to send him to Africa. To an exterior in these early years somewhat heavy and uncouth, he united a manner which, by universal testimony, was irresistibly winning, with a fund of genuine but simple humor and fun that would break out on the most unlikely occasions, and in after years enabled him to overcome difficulties and mellow refractory chiefs when all other methods failed.

HIS FIRST WORK IN AFRICA.

Livingstone sailed from England on December 8, 1840. From Algoa Bay he made direct for Kuruman, the mission station, 700 miles north, established by Hamilton and Moffat thirty years before, and there he arrived on July 31, 1841. The next two years Livingstone

spent in traveling about the country to the northwards in search of a suitable outpost for settlement. During these two years he had already become convinced that the success of the white missionary in a field like Africa is not to be reckoned by the tale of doubtful conversions he can send home each year. That the proper work for such men was that of pioneering, opening up and starting new ground, leaving native agents to work it out in detail. The whole of his subsequent career was a development of this idea.

IMPORTANT DISCOVERIES.

He selected the valley of Mabotsa, on one of the sources of the Limpopo River, 200 miles north-east of the Kuruman, as his first station. It was shortly after his settlement here that he was attacked by a lion, which crushed his left arm and nearly put an end to his career. The arm was imperfectly set, and it was a source of trouble to him at times throughout his life, and was the means of identifying his body after his death. To a house, mainly built by himself at Mabotsa, Livingstone in 1844 brought home his wife, Mary Moffat, the daughter of Moffat, of Kuruman. Here he labored till 1846, when he removed to Chonuane, 40 miles further north, the chief place of the Bakwaim tribe under Sechele. In 1847 he again removed to Kolobeng, about 40 miles westward, the whole tribe following their missionary. With the help of and in the company of two English sportsmen, Mr. Oswell and Mr. Murray, he was able to undertake a journey of great importance to Lake Ngami, which had never yet been seen by a white man. Crossing the Kalahari Desert, of which Livingstone gave the first detailed account, they reached the lake August 1, 1849. In April of the next year he made an attempt to reach Sebituane, who lived 200 miles beyond the lake, this time in company with his wife and children, but again got no further than the lake, as the children were seized with fever. A year later, April, 1851, Livingstone, again accompanied by his family and Mr. Oswell, set out this time with the intention of settling among the Makololo for a period. At last he succeeded, and reached the Chobe, a southern tributary of the Zambesi, and in the end of June discovered the Zambesi itself at the town of Sesheke. Leaving the Chobe on August 13th the party reached Capetown in April, 1852. Livingstone may now be said to have completed the first period of his career in Africa, the period in which the

work of the missionary had the greatest prominence. Henceforth he appears more in the character of an explorer, but it must be remembered that he regarded himself to the last as a pioneer missionary, whose work was to open up the country to others.

CROSSING THE CONTINENT.

Having, with a sad heart, seen his family off to England, Livingstone left the Cape on June 8, 1852, and reached Linyanti, the capital of the Makololo, on the Chobe, on May 23, 1853, received in royal style by Sekeletu, and welcomed by all the people. His first object in this journey was to seek for some healthy, high land in which to plant a station. Ascending the Zambesi he, however, found no place free from the destructive tsetse insect, and therefore resolved to discover a route to the interior from either the west or east coast. To accompany Livingstone in his hazardous undertaking twenty-seven men were selected from the various tribes under Sekeletu, partly with a view to open up a trade route between their own country and the coast. The start was made from Linyanti on November 11, 1853, and by ascending the Leeba, Lake Dilolo was reached on February 20, 1854. On April 4th the Congo was crossed, and on May 31st the town of Loanda was entered, much to the joy of the men; their leader, however, being all but dead from fever, semi-starvation and dysentery. Livingstone speaks in the warmest terms of the generosity of the Portuguese merchants and officials. From Loanda Livingstone sent his astronomical observations to Maclear at the Cape, and an account of his journey to the Royal Geographical Society, which in May, 1855, awarded him its highest honor, its gold medal. Loanda was left on September 20, 1854, but Livingstone lingered along about the Portuguese settlements. Making a slight detour to the north to Cabango, the party reached Lake Dilolo on June 13th. Here Livingstone made a careful study of the watershed of the country in what is, perhaps, the most complicated river system in the world. He "now for the first time apprehended the true form of the river systems and the continent," and the conclusions he came to have been essentially confirmed.

VICTORIA FALLS.

For Livingstone's purposes the route to the west was unavailable, and he decided to follow the Zambesi to its mouth. With a numerous

following he left Linyanti on November 8, 1855. A fortnight afterwards he made the great discovery with which, in popular imagination, his name is more intimately associated than with anything else he did—the famous “Victoria” Falls of the Zambesi, which, after a second examination in his subsequent journey, he concluded to be due to an immense fissure or fault right across the bed of the river, which was one means of draining off the waters of the great lake that he supposed must have at one time occupied the centre of the continent. He had already formed a true idea of the configuration of the continent as a great hollow or basin-shaped plateau, surrounded by a ring of mountains. Livingstone reached the Portuguese settlement of Tette on March 2, 1856, in a very emaciated condition, and after six weeks left his men well cared for and proceeded to Kilimane, where he arrived on May 20, thus having completed, in two years and six months, one of the most remarkable and fruitful journeys on record. The results in geography and in natural science in all its departments were abundant and accurate; his observations necessitated a reconstruction of the map of central Africa. Men of the highest eminence in all departments of science testified to the highest value of Livingstone’s work. When Livingstone began his work in Africa it was virtually a blank from Kuruman to Timbuctoo.

On December 12th he arrived in England, after an absence of sixteen years, and met everywhere with the welcome of a hero. He told his story in his “Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa” (1857) with straightforward simplicity, and with no effort after literary style. Its publication brought what he would have considered a competency had he felt himself at liberty to settle down for life. In 1857 he severed his connection with the London Missionary Society, with whom, however, he always remained on the best of terms, and in February, 1858, he accepted the appointment of “Her Majesty’s Consul at Kilimane for the eastern coast and the independent districts in the interior, and commander of an expedition for exploring eastern and central Africa.”

NIAGARA SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

The year 1854 was made notable in the annals of engineering by the construction of the suspension bridge across the Niagara River. This form of bridge was of American origin, the first having been built in 1801 over Jacob’s Creek, near Greensburg, Pennsylvania. It had a span of

70 feet, and was suspended by chains. Others were soon built of longer span. One over the Schuylkill River, in 1808, had a span of 306 feet, but was partly supported by an intermediate pier. The next year one was built at Newburyport, Mass., with a clear span of 240 feet, and in 1815 one in Allentown, Pa., had two spans of 230 feet each. All these were made of chains. The first wire cable suspension bridge was built in 1816 across the Schuylkill River, at Philadelphia, with a span of 408 feet. In 1846 Charles Ellet built the Monongahela bridge at Pittsburg, Pa., with eight spans of 188 feet each, and declared it to be his conviction that a span of 1500 feet was practicable, and could be made safe for railroad trains—a prediction which has since been splendidly vindicated. In 1848 he built the great bridge at Wheeling, over the Ohio River, with a span of 1010 feet, the longest in the world at that time. It was supported by twelve cables, with a total of 6600 wires. This bridge was blown down by a storm in 1854, nearly all the cables breaking at the anchorage.

The year that saw the fall of the Wheeling bridge saw, however, the completion of that at Niagara. This latter was built by John A. Roebling, on a new plan devised by himself, which has since been universally used. Thus this bridge was the true prototype of all that have been built since, and Roebling may be esteemed the founder of the system. The Niagara Bridge was built with a span of 821 feet, with two roadways, one above the other, each fifteen feet wide, one for railroad trains and one for ordinary traffic.

VARIOUS INCIDENTS.

We must note briefly in passing the annexation of New Caledonia by France, for use as a penal colony, in 1853; the promulgation of the Papal doctrine of the Immaculate Conception in 1854; the opening of the railway across the Isthmus of Panama, and the death of Mickiewicz, the Polish poet, in 1855; and the death of Heine, the poet, Sir William Hamilton, the philosopher, and Delaroche, the painter, in 1856.

One of the chief literary incidents of these years was the publication of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe's anti-slavery story, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," which, written and first printed in 1852, by 1856 was circulated to the extent of more than 500,000 copies in the United States alone, and was translated into more than twenty-five European and Asiatic languages.

CHAPTER XXXI.

James Buchanan becomes President of the United States—Troubles in Kansas—John Brown at Harper's Ferry—The Dred-Scott Decision—Lincoln and Douglas—Lincoln Elected President—Secession—Attitude of the Washington Government—Incidents of the Administration.

IN 1857 Franklin Pierce was succeeded as President of the United States by James Buchanan, the Democratic candidate, who received 174 electoral votes. John C. Fremont, the Republican candidate, received 114 electoral votes.

The two great political parties into which the people of the United States had, for a considerable number of years, been divided, were the Democratic and the Whig parties; but after the repeal by Congress of the Missouri Compromise, a party styled the Republican party, was formed, composed chiefly of those citizens who had before belonged to the Whig party. The leading principle of this new party was opposition to the further extension of slavery into free territory; yet it maintained that Congress had no right to interfere with slavery as it existed in the slave States.

The subject of slavery continued unhappily to disturb the peace of the country during Mr. Buchanan's administration, as it had done during that of Mr. Pierce; and his administration was noted for the continuation of the troubles in Kansas, for the raid of John Brown in Virginia, and, towards its close, for the manœuvres and preparations for the great rebellion which soon followed. Three of the members of his Cabinet, Cobb, Thompson and Floyd, ultimately took an active and prominent part in the secession of the slave States, and much was done by them, while in office, to aid it, especially by Floyd, the Secretary of War, by sending the United States arms and munitions of war to the Southern States.

TROUBLES IN KANSAS.

We have already told of the beginning of the struggle for the control of Kansas. In June, 1857, the delegates to another convention for forming a State Constitution were elected, but the free State men, feeling that they had no security for a fair election, generally took no part in it. This convention met at Lecompton and formed a constitution, in which slavery was established. The promulgation of this constitution caused great excitement. It was strongly condemned by Governor Walker, who proceeded immediately to Washington to remonstrate against its adoption, but, before his arrival, it had been adopted by Congress and received the approval of the President. Governor Walker soon after resigned his office, and James W. Denver, of California, was appointed in his place.

The Lecompton Constitution, when submitted to the people in 1858, was rejected by a majority of upwards of 10,000 votes. Soon after this rejection Denver resigned his office, and Samuel Medary, of Ohio, was appointed Governor.

Delegates to another Constitutional Convention were elected, who met in July, 1859, at Wyandotte, and formed a constitution, in which slavery was prohibited. This constitution was ratified by the people by about 4000 majority. A State election was held under it on the 6th of December, 1859, and Charles Robinson was elected Governor.

Kansas, after a long, calamitous and sanguinary conflict, in which the grossest frauds were committed, and the vilest passions exhibited, was finally admitted by Congress into the Union in January, 1861, as a free State.

JOHN BROWN AT HARPER'S FERRY.

A prominent leader of the free soil party in Kansas was John Brown, of Ossawatimie. He took a conspicuous part in the civil war in that territory, and one of his sons, who was captured by the enemy, was cruelly tortured into insanity. Brown, who was an intensely religious man, thereupon conceived the idea that he was chosen by God to lead a campaign against the slave power on its own ground. Accordingly, on October 16, 1859, he with fifteen white men, two of them his sons, and five men of color, made an invasion into the State of Virginia with the avowed object of freeing the slaves, took possession of the United States Arsenal at Harper's Ferry and a considerable part of the town, and

seized and held some of the citizens as hostages. Four of the inhabitants were killed in the conflict.

A great panic was soon raised in the neighborhood, and in a great part of the State of Virginia ; and the next day some of the federal troops and of the Virginia militia arrived, and 1500 armed men were on the ground to suppress the insurrection.

Brown and his men, with the hostages, took refuge in the armory buildings, which were seized by the troops ; twelve of the invaders were killed, Brown and four of his men were taken prisoners, and two of them escaped, but they were afterwards captured. Brown and the six other prisoners were brought to trial and were hanged.

THE DRED-SCOTT DECISION.

One of the most important political incidents of the Buchanan administration, and one which had an unspeakably important effect upon the slavery question, was what is known as the Dred-Scott case. Dred Scott was a negro and a slave. His master was an army surgeon, whose home was in the State of Missouri. This master took Dred Scott in 1834 into the free State of Illinois, and lived there four years, keeping the slave with him. From Illinois he went into the Minnesota territory, which was not yet a State, but in which slavery was forbidden by the Act of Congress known as the Missouri Compromise, which we have hitherto explained. After some residence in Minnesota, master and slave returned to Missouri. Not long after this return Dred Scott received a flogging, such as slaves at that time frequently received. Thereupon he brought action for damages for what he claimed was assault and battery. He claimed that as slavery was illegal in Illinois and Minnesota he could not legally have been a slave while he was living there, and that as he had become a free man in Illinois and Minnesota he must have returned to Missouri a free man.

This case was begun in a small local court, and was carried, on appeal, from one court to another. In one case judgment was rendered in Dred Scott's favor. Finally the case reached the Supreme Court of the United States, and was there carefully considered. Before that court it was merely a question of jurisdiction. In 1857 the judgment of the Supreme Court was finally given by Roger B. Taney, the venerable Chief Justice. This decision, which has become historic, was against the claims

of Dred Scott. It was, in brief, to the effect that he was not a citizen within the meaning of the Constitution of the United States ; that he had no standing in court, and was not entitled to bring a suit at law ; that the Act of Congress known as the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, and therefore null and void ; that Dred Scott was not a citizen of Missouri, but a mere chattel, and that slave-owners could take their slaves with them into free States, or wherever they pleased, without moving title to them, just as they could take their horses, their dogs and the money in their pockets. The decision further stated that the Constitution of the United States had been framed by men who acted upon the theory that "the black man had no rights that the white man was bound to respect."

While this decision was doubtless given with all possible sincerity and judicial honesty, it was evidently strongly in favor of the slave power at the South. Its practical effect would in time have been to abolish all distinctions of free States and slave States, and to make the entire United States a slave country. It greatly encouraged the slave party at the South to assume a bolder and more defiant attitude and to revive, with scarcely the slightest attempt at concealment, the importation of negro slaves from Africa, which had been forbidden by Act of Congress since 1808 in accordance with the express understanding made at the time of the adoption of the Constitution. During Buchanan's administration the Government made little effort to check this illegal traffic. At the same time the Dred Scott decision aroused the anti-slavery sentiment of the North as it had never been aroused before in opposition to the slave power.

LINCOLN AND DOUGLAS.

A local campaign in the State of Illinois in 1858 now demands our attention. Stephen A. Douglas, the author of the "Squatter Sovereignty" scheme, was in that year a candidate for re election to the United States Senate as the candidate of the Democratic party. The candidate of the newly-formed Republican party, in opposition to him, was Abraham Lincoln. The latter, probably the most noteworthy figure in the history of the United States, was of Virginian ancestry, and was born in Kentucky on February 12, 1809. His parents were wretchedly poor and ignorant, and belonged to the class which is contemptuously referred to as the "poor white trash." As a boy Lincoln had practically no school

ing, but was brought up to work hard. He served as a common laborer on a flatboat, then as clerk and storekeeper in a country village in Illinois, then as postmaster, then as a surveyor, and finally was admitted to the bar and began practice as a lawyer. From this record it will be inferred that he succeeded in educating himself. He did so, studying such books as he could get at night by the light of a log fire. In this way he succeeded in gaining an excellent English education, and made himself one of the most perfect masters of English speech and English literary and oratorical style the world has ever known. He had a natural gift of droll and irresistible humor and a rare vein of tender-hearted human sympathy. The shrewdness of political tactics and leadership seemed to come to him as a natural gift. In both legal and political debate he has never had a superior in American history. He was, withal, conspicuously unselfish and absolutely honest, so that he commanded the affection and confidence of the people in a rare degree.

At the time of the campaign of 1858 he had served in the Illinois Legislature for several terms, and also for a short time in Congress. In 1858 he challenged Douglas to the then common political practice of a joint debate. The two men travelled over the State, making speeches and discussing the political issues of the day together, from the same platform and before the same audience. It was the general verdict of the public that Lincoln won the honors of the debate. He succeeded in forcing Douglas to commit himself with positive declarations of opinion upon the Dred-Scott case and other phases of the conflict between the slave power and the free States. As Douglas was a candidate for Senator in the free State of Illinois, and, as he was, moreover, at heart opposed to slavery, his declarations on these subjects were in favor of freedom and against the extension of slavery. The result of the campaign was that Douglas was re-elected to the United States Senate, and was made more popular than ever with that portion of the Democratic party in the North which was opposed to the extension of the slave power; that Douglas was at the same time made so offensive to the slaveholders of the South as to render it impossible for them to support him as a candidate for the Presidency of the United States, which he expected to be, and as a matter of fact was, two years later; and finally, that Abraham Lincoln was brought into national prominence and made the logical candidate of the Republican party for the Presidency in 1860.

LINCOLN ELECTED PRESIDENT.

In 1860 the sixteenth President of the United States was elected. Previous to his election the country was convulsed by fierce party contentions. The two principal parties into which the country was divided were the Democratic and the Republican, and slavery was the great cause of strife.

The Democratic party, which was strongly supported in the slave States, and which had long had the ascendancy in the country, being unable to unite on a candidate for the Presidency, was divided into two sections. The Southern section, which was the most strenuous to promote the interests of slavery, took John C. Breckenridge for its candidate; the other section took Stephen A. Douglas; the candidate of the Republican party was Abraham Lincoln, and the candidate of a fourth party, styled the Union party, was John Bell.

The election, which was conducted without violence, took place on the 6th of November, 1860, and resulted in the choice of Abraham Lincoln, who received 180 electoral votes; Breckenridge had 72; Bell, 39, and Douglas 12.

SECESSION

Lincoln had made it perfectly plain during the campaign which resulted in his election that he would not interfere with slavery in the Southern States, but would merely resist its extension into the free States and Territories. Nevertheless the leaders of the slavery party affected to regard his election as a direct menace to the institution of slavery and to the autonomy of the Southern States. As soon, therefore, as the result of the election was known, the Senators from South Carolina and all Federal officeholders from that State resigned their places. In the following month, December, 1860, a convention was held in South Carolina which adopted resolutions declaring and announcing the secession of that State from the Union. This example was promptly followed by most of the other slave States, and long before the end of Buchanan's administration, indeed before the end of January, 1861, the States of Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas had also adopted ordinances of secession. In February, 1861, delegates from these States met at Montgomery, Ala., and organized a government which they called that of the Confederate States of America. They adopted a constitution, of which the bulk was simply a copy of the constitution of the United States,

but introduced into it articles recognizing and legalizing slavery and forbidding the enactment of a protective tariff. They elected Jefferson Davis, who had been a United States Senator from Mississippi, President of the Confederate States, and Alexander Hamilton Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President. Some of the first acts of this new government was to seize the United States forts and arsenals throughout the South wherever they could. Some of these were voluntarily surrendered to them. Fort Sumter, in the harbor of Charleston, S. C., and a few others, refused to surrender or to recognize the authority of the new government. Thereupon the civil and military authorities of South Carolina began preparations for the forcible capture or reduction of Fort Sumter.

ATTITUDE OF THE WASHINGTON GOVERNMENT.

The attitude of President Buchanan's administration towards these doings of the Southern States was marked with weakness and hesitancy. Mr. Buchanan greatly deplored the secession of the States, but he held, according to his interpretation of the Constitution, that he had no power to coerce a sovereign State, and therefore could do nothing to prevent secession. Several members of his Cabinet openly sympathized with the secessionists and aided them with gifts of arms, munitions of war, etc., belonging to the United States.

During the winter Congress was busy discussing various plans of compromise. The most conspicuous was put forward by John J. Crittenden, a Senator from Kentucky and a man of high ability and lofty character. He proposed an amendment to the Constitution of the United States by which the Missouri Compromise line was to be prolonged to the Pacific Ocean; slavery was to be prohibited north of that line, and Congress was to be expressly forbidden to meddle with slavery south of that line, and the Federal Government was to pay full market value for all fugitive slaves rescued from Federal officers after arrest. This plan, known as the Crittenden Compromise, gained wide popularity at the North, but ultimately failed of adoption.

The State of Virginia was at this time opposed to secession and earnestly sought to avoid war. At the request of its Government a peace conference assembled at Washington in February, 1861. The chairman of this conference was John Tyler, ex-President of the United States, and delegates were present from fourteen free States and from

seven slave States, to wit. : Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Maryland and Delaware. The States which had seceded were not represented. As a result of its mature deliberations this conference recommended that Congress should make various concessions to the slaveholders. All of these recommendations were rejected by Congress, and instead of them, a constitutional amendment was adopted by Congress, which had been offered by Senator Douglas, and which guaranteed that Congress should never interfere with slavery in the States. This amendment was, however, never adopted by the necessary number of States by popular vote, but practically fell out of sight and was forgotten after the outbreak of the Civil War.

INCIDENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

During the administration of James Buchanan the United States was visited with one of the most disastrous financial panics ever known in its history. This occurred in 1857 and lasted for several years. Banks suspended everywhere, and thousands of business men and firms were driven into bankruptcy. At the same time the Treasury of the United States was depleted and the credit of the Government fell to so low a point that money for public purposes was borrowed with great difficulty, and then only by selling Government bonds at a considerable discount below their par value.

The Mormon colony at Great Salt Lake, Utah, was founded ostensibly as a religious organization. As it grew in strength, however, it assumed civil independence, and defied the authority of the United States Government. The result was a serious rebellion, which was only quelled by the United States army after considerable bloodshed.

The Federal Union was enlarged during these years by the admission of Minnesota and Oregon as free States. After all her troubles, including a civil war in which thousands of lives were lost, Kansas also was admitted to the Union as a free State.

Buchanan's administration ended with the most gloomy outlook the Republic had known during the century. The Government was almost bankrupt, business was prostrated, and the country was upon the verge of civil war.

CHAPTER XXXII.

End of British War with Persia—Origin of the Mutiny—The Greased Cartridges—Outbreak at Meerut—Cawnpore and Lucknow—Suppression of the Mutiny—End of the East India Company—British and French in China—Moving on Peking—Fall of Peking—The Rise of Sardinia—Attempt to Kill Napoleon II—War with Austria—Magenta and Solferino—Peace of Villafranca—Union of Northern Italy—Savoy and Nice—Garibaldi Liberates Naples and Sicily—Defeat of the Papal Army—Victor Emanuel King of Italy—Interests of Various Lands.

THE British war with Persia, of which we have spoken in a former chapter, was of brief duration. It ended in 1857, just in time to give place to another war of great magnitude and of most painful details. This was the Sepoy mutiny in India, which grew out of the arbitrary and unsympathetic rule of Lord Dalhousie, the British Governor-General of India.

The annexation of the Punjaub was carried out by Lord Dalhousie, who as Governor-General did more to extend the limits of British territory than any of his predecessors since the Marquis of Hastings. He was strongly of opinion that the government of the feudatory princes was so bad that it was for the true interests of India that as many of them as possible should be got rid of, and their possessions taken under direct British rule. With this object he refused to fall in with the prevailing native custom by which childless rulers were allowed to adopt into their family anyone whom they chose, and to pass on to them their full rights of sovereignty. In this way, he declared, in 1848, that the Mahratta State of Satara had fallen in as a lapsed fief for want of an heir. In 1853 the much larger and more important principality of Nagpore was annexed on the same principle, and formed into the Central Provinces. Jhansi, a third Mahratta State, was taken over for the same reason in 1854.



CHARLES DICKENS



THOMAS CARLYLE



SIR WALTER SCOTT



JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE



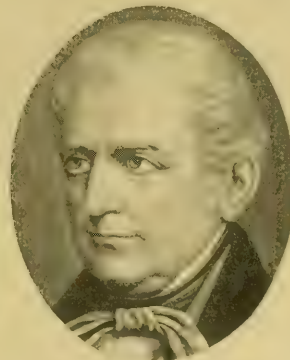
LORD TENNYSON



LORD BYRON



VICTOR HUGO



JAMES FENNIMORE COOPER



JOHN RUSKIN



1870—CHARGE OF THE FRENCH DRAGOONS AT GRAVELOTTE

When Bajee Rao, the Peishwa who had been stripped of his dominions but not of his title in 1818, died in 1853, Dalhousie refused to allow his title to be passed on to his adopted son Dhundu Punt, and gave him a pension instead. These acts seemed to the Hindoos to strike at the roots of all family life and ancestral custom. They could not understand the English view by which an adopted child is regarded as something very different from the actual son of his benefactor. In their ideas the annexation of Nagpore or Jhansi was simple robbery.

Dalhousie also succeeded in shocking Mohammedan feeling by his seizure of Oude in 1856. The last king of that State was an incurable spendthrift and a reckless oppressor of his subjects. Dalhousie, after repeated warnings, declared him deposed, and made a new province out of his wealthy but dilapidated realm. To these enormous confiscations inside India he added one external conquest. The King of Burmah having molested the English merchants of Rangoon on many occasions, Dalhousie declared war on him in 1852, and drove him out of Pegu and the lands at the mouth of the Irrawaddy. They were added to Aracan and formed into the new province of British Burmah.

Dalhousie was something more than a mere annexer of territory. He was a great reformer and organizer, introduced railways and telegraphs into India, fostered the education of the natives, and endeavored to give them more places in the civil service than had seemed good to his predecessors. Nevertheless his actions must be considered as having contributed to a very considerable degree towards precipitating the great rebellion which broke out soon after his departure for England in 1856.

ORIGIN OF THE MUTINY.

The origins of this fearful convulsion are not hard to trace, though the exact proportion which each cause had in producing the rising in 1857 is more difficult to ascertain. The mutiny was mainly a military conspiracy. It was only in Oude and a few other districts that the population of the countryside took any active part in it. For some years before the outbreak the spirit of the native army had been steadily deteriorating. The old notion of the invincibility of the British arms had been shaken by the Afghan disaster of 1841, and by the narrow escape from defeat in the Sikh campaign of 1845-46. No tie of natural loyalty bound the Sepoys to the Government which they served;

indeed, a very large proportion of them were born subjects of the King of Oude, and resented his deposition. They were kept true by their pay and immunities, by their respect and affection for their officers, and by their wholesome dread of the European garrison of India. All these motives had been shaken of late. The Government had been offending them by sending them on over-sea expeditions to Burmah and China. Some of their old privileges, *e. g.*, extra pay for service beyond the Sutlej, had been abolished. The tie of personal loyalty to their hierarchical superiors had been much loosened. The British officers no longer spent their whole life with their regiment, and were often transferred from corps to corps, or detached on civil employ. The comparative easiness of obtaining leave to England since the overland route had been invented, and steamships had brought India within six weeks' voyage of London, was not without its effect. Moreover, in 1857 the proportion of British to native troops in India was abnormally low. Many of the regiments summoned to Europe for the Crimean war had not been replaced, and what white troops there were had been mainly concentrated in the newly-annexed Punjaub. Between the Sutlej and Calcutta there were at the moment of the outbreak only six British battalions.

A great mercenary army which has begun to despise its masters, and thinks it has a grievance against them, is ripe for revolt. The Sepoys had been so much pampered and petted by the Government that they thought that it could not do without them. It only needed a cause and a cry to spur them into open rebellion.

THE GREASED CARTRIDGES.

The cause was supplied by political intriguers, largely drawn from the ranks of those who had suffered by Dalhousie's annexations. The dependents of the ex-King of Oude were a centre of discontent among the Mohammedans and those of the ex-Peishwa among the Mahrattas. The secret programme laid before the Sepoys was the restoration of the Mogul Emperor, who still lived as a pensioner at Delhi, as the national sovereign of India, and the restoration under his suzerainty of all the lately annexed States. This scheme would appeal more to Mohammedans than Hindoos, but the revival of the Peishwaship would not be without its effect among the latter. The actual cry which set the smouldering elements of rebellion ablaze was a foolish rumor to the effect that the

Government was about to attempt to force Christianity on its subjects. This was to be done, so it was averred, by defiling the soldiers. The grease of pigs and of cattle was to be smeared on the cartridges which were being issued to the troops for the new rifle, with which they were being re-armed. Hindoos would lose their caste by touching the lard of the sacred cow, and Mohammedans be polluted by handling the fat of the swine. All being contaminated, the "Sircar" would invite them to become Christians! This incredibly silly tale found implicit credence in many quarters, and seems to have provoked the outbreak of the rebellion before its organizers were quite ready. It would seem that a general rising had been planned for the month of May, but even before that date isolated risings occurred. The first at Barrackpur, near Calcutta, was easily suppressed, and the two regiments which took part in it were disbanded. The Government had no idea that they were dealing with a mere corner of a great conspiracy.

OUTBREAK AT MEERUT.

The serious trouble began with the revolt of the brigade at Meerut, a great cantonment near Delhi, on May 7, 1857. The mutineers, after shooting many of their officers, marched on the ancient capital, induced the troops there to aid them, and murdered many scores of Europeans. They then went to Bahadur Shah, the aged Mogul Prince, and saluted him as their monarch. He was placed on the throne of his ancestors, and hailed as Emperor of India. The news of the seizure of Delhi by the rebels flew round northern Hindostan in a moment, and was followed by mutinies in almost every cantonment where a native regiment lay. In most cases their rising was accompanied by the murder of their officers under circumstances of gross treachery and cruelty. In a few weeks the whole of Oude, with Rohilcund and the greater part of the North-west Provinces, was in the possession of the insurgents. The rising spread into Bahar at one end and into the Central Provinces at the other. The main centres of revolt were Lucknow, where a young relative of the old ruler of Oude was proclaimed King, and Cawnpore, which was seized by the would-be Peishwa Dhundu Punt, the adopted son of Bajee Rao—a miscreant better known by the name of the Nana Sahib. The English who escaped massacre sought refuge in the few stations, such as Agra and Allahabad, where there was a European regiment in possession.

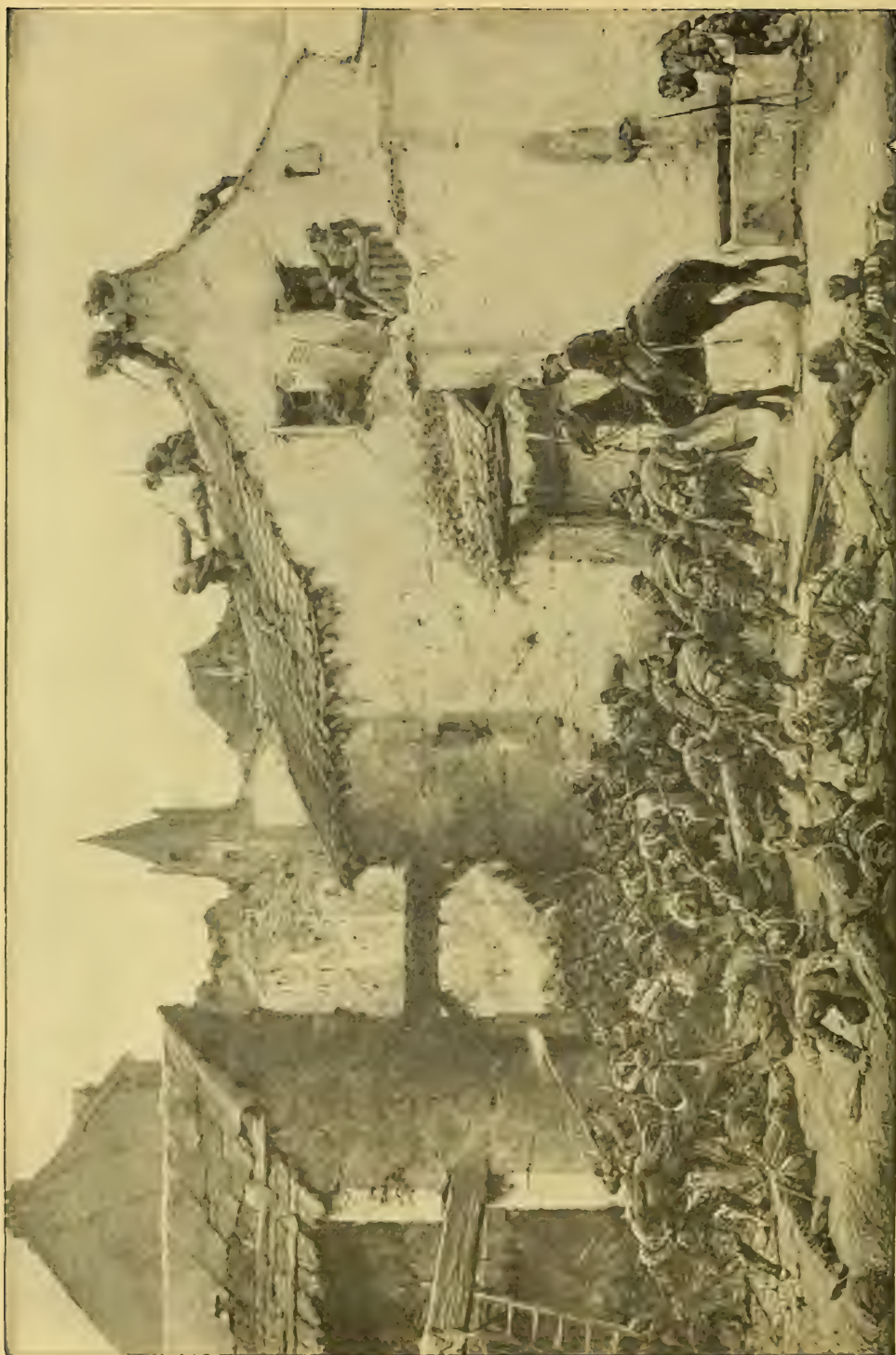
The blow was so sudden and unexpected that for a moment the Government was paralyzed; the Punjaub, where lay the greater part of the white troops, was separated from Calcutta by 400 miles of territory which had passed to the rebels. It was from Sir John Lawrence in the Punjaub that the first signs of movement came. After disarming the Sepoys in his district he sent a small force of 5000 British troops against Delhi. They forced their way to its gates, and there established themselves, in order to attack a city garrisoned by twice their own number of regular troops. So began a siege which lasted from June 8th to September 20th. Lawrence pushed up to aid the besiegers all the white men he could spare, and a quantity of new Sikh levies, raised mainly from the old enemies of 1848. They behaved admirably, and never for a moment showed any signs of disloyalty. On September 14th General Nicholson stormed the city, and after six days of desperate street-fighting the rebel army broke up, and the Emperor and all his family were taken prisoners. The aged Bahadur Shah himself was spared, but his sons and grandson were shot without a trial by Major Hodson, the fierce cavalry leader who had followed up and seized them.

CAWNPORE AND LUCKNOW.

Meanwhile two sieges further to the south had been engrossing the rebels of Oude. At Cawnpore General Wheeler, with 400 fighting men and a much larger number of women and children, was beleaguered by the Nana Sahib in some flimsy entrenchments. Worn out by heat and starvation, the garrison yielded on terms, when they were promised a free passage by river to Calcutta. But the treacherous Prince fell upon them as they were getting into their boats, and slew all the men in cold blood (June 27th). Two or three hundred women and children were saved alive for a time, but when he heard that an English force was drawing near Cawnpore, the infamous Mahratta had the whole of his unfortunate captives hacked to pieces and cast into a well (July 15th). A siege with a very different result was proceeding at Lucknow, where Sir Henry Lawrence, with a single British battalion and a great mass of English fugitives was being attacked by the main body of the Oude rebels. Lawrence was shot early in the siege, but his companions defended the extemporized fortifications of the Residency for three months against some 40,000 rebels, till relief at last came.



1870—BISMARCK MEETING NAPOLEON AFTER THE BATTLE OF SEDAN



1870—STORMING A RETREAT—FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

It was brought by Sir Henry Havelock, who had arrived at Calcutta with the troops returning from the Persian war, and was promptly sent up country with a mere handful of men to endeavor to save Cawnpore and Lucknow. He arrived too late to help Wheeler's unhappy garrison, but on September 25th cut his way through to Lucknow, and there established himself in the midst of the rebels, whom he was not strong enough to drive away. The gallant defenders of the Residency were not finally relieved till November, when Sir Colin Campbell, who had been sent out from England with reinforcements, came up and escorted them away from their stronghold.

SUPPRESSION OF THE MUTINY.

By this time Delhi had fallen, and England was pouring troops by tens of thousands into Calcutta and Bombay. The rest of the war consisted in the gradual hemming in and chunting down of the rebels by Sir Colin Campbell's army. In December he defeated, outside Cawnpore, the troops of Scindia, who, in spite of their master's orders, had taken arms and joined the Oude insurgents. In February, 1858, he marched for the second time on Lucknow, and stormed palace after palace, till, after three weeks of hard fighting, the insurgents abandoned the place and fled into Rohilcund (March 21st). There they were beaten again at the battle of Bareilly (May 7th), and finally dispersed and fled to their homes. To the great grief of his pursuers, the infamous Nana Sahib escaped the sword and the rope, and got off into the jungles of Nepaul, where he is believed to have died of malaria a few weeks later. The only corner where the war now lingered was around the Mahratta towns of Gwalior and Jhansi, where the rebellion was headed by the Ranee of the latter place, a cruel Princess, who had massacred a number of English prisoners to avenge the annexation of her late husband's dominions in 1854. She fell in battle, armed and fighting like a man, under the walls of Gwalior (June 16, 1858). This was the last general engagement in the war, but for many months more movable columns were still hunting down the last scattered bands of insurgents in Rohilcund and the Central Provinces.

END OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.

One of the things which had buoyed up the Sepoys in their rising was a prophecy that the *raj* of the East India Company was destined to

last only a hundred years, counting onward from Plassey and 1757. The forecast was actually fulfilled, though in a different sense from what the rebels had expected, for the company was abolished by Act of Parliament in 1858, and its administration taken over by the crown. Since 1833, when its constitution had been varied at once of the periodical renewals of its charter, it had been forced to give up its trading monopoly and its attempts to restrict the settlement of Europeans in India. In 1853 its distribution of patronage had been curtailed, and its civil service thrown open to competition. At the time of its dissolution, therefore, it had ceased to be a mainly mercantile concern, and was almost wholly occupied in administration. There was no reason why such work should not be under the immediate control of the Crown, and in 1858 the whole machinery of government was taken over and placed under a "Secretary of State for India" and the Governor-General, whose name was now changed to that of Viceroy. The European troops of the old company's army became the 101st to 109th regiment of the British establishment, and a new native army was organized to replace that which had ended so disgracefully in the mutiny.

BRITISH AND FRENCH IN CHINA.

The second British war with China led to the joint action of the British and French, already mentioned in a former chapter. The allied expedition bombarded and captured the great city of Canton, and compelled China to make a treaty with the Powers. The Chinese Government failed, however, to keep this treaty, and cast into prison, tortured and menaced with death the British envoys who were sent thither in accordance with its terms. Forthwith a joint expedition to Peking was undertaken for the rescue of the envoys and the punishment of the Chinese Government for its bad faith. This expedition numbered among its officers Captain Charles Gordon, of the British army, a young man who had served with distinction in the Crimea, and who was destined to become one of the most famous soldiers of the century. We may tell the story of this war in the words of his diary, as follows:

"The landing of troops at Pehtang commenced August 1, when General Michel's Division (the 1st) was landed, the forts found deserted and occupied, and the soldiers on the following day quartered in the village.

August 9.—General Napier and Division (the 2d) landed.

August 12.—An advance was made on the fortified village of Sinho, which was captured with the loss of two Sikhs and a few trifling casualties. The troops encamped in the plain within the enemy's outworks and rested the whole of the next day.

August 14.—The 1st Division advanced and drove the enemy from their position in the village of Tangkoo, and then retired to the neighborhood of Sinho, while the 2d Division was quartered in the village. Active preparations were then made for the capture of the North Fort, and the engineers of the 1st Division were engaged in building a bridge at Sinho, in order to cross the river to attack the Southern Forts in case the assault on the North Fort failed.

August 21.—At daylight the assault commenced on the North Fort.

The firing ceased at a little after 8. The enemy were given till 2 to surrender the remaining forts. At that hour the Buffs and 8th Punjaubis marched into the 2d North Fort and took it without firing a shot; its garrison of upwards of 2000 men were set free. In about an hour afterwards the South forts were also yielded. We lost 201 killed and wounded, the loss of the French were (*sic*) about 130, and that of the Chinese enormous, not less than 2000.

August 29.—The 1st Division crossed the floating bridge and started on the march to Tien-tsin along the right bank of the river. The Cavalry Brigade marched along the left.

August 31.—The 2d Division left their quarters at Tangkoo and encamped near Sinho close to the floating bridge. Next morning they crossed and encamped on the side opposite.

September 3.—The division advanced and halted at the village of Kihkoo, some eight miles on the road to Tien-tsin.

September 4.—Marched to Pehtangkow, 11 miles further on.

September 5.—Arrived at Tien-tsin and encamped on the large plain near the temple outside of the city walls.

MOVING ON PEKING.

"September 7.—3000 men, under General Michel, pushed on for Pookow, the first halting place on the march to Peking. The convention was to be signed at Tungchow, and the troops were to form Lord Elgin's escort to Peking.

September 8.—Marched to Yangtsun, where the army had to halt two days on account of the rain. The French, who were following, halted at Pookow.

September 11.—Marched to Nan-tsai-tsun.

September 12.—To Hoseewoo.

September 17.—The 31st left to garrison Hoseewoo. The rest marched on and encamped at Ma-tow.

September 18.—March commenced and continued for six miles when Hoppo Hang was found waiting in his chair on the road to point out the encamping ground. A large Tartar army in front—evident signs of treachery. Colonel Walker and Commissary Thompson have to ride for their lives under fire of native musketry. The army finds itself nearly surrounded by guns in ambush, which open fire. A grand fight commences, which ends in the perfect defeat and rout of the Tartars. The enemy are driven beyond the village of Chang-chia-wan, which is given up to loot, and the houses for quartering the troops.

September 21.—An advance on the numerous encampments of the enemy east of Tungchow on the banks of the Yun-leang Canal. The camps are burned and the enemy again completely routed with much loss of life. One dragoon of ours is killed and one Sikh, with a few wounded. The toll bridge, the floating bridge and the stone bridge all fall into our hands. At the last place the French had pretty close quarters with the Tartars and made great havoc among them. The army encamped on the south side of the canal.

October 1.—A village on the road to Peking is taken for a depot. The suburbs of Tungchow and the north gate are occupied by the marines.

October 3.—The army crosses the canal and takes up position near the depot, two miles towards Peking.

October 4.—Advanced, but halted early near some brick-kilns in sight of Peking, where the army encamped without tents or baggage.

FALL OF PEKING.

“October 5.—Pushed on to the Tartar camp at the An-ting Gate on the north side of the city, intending to rendezvous at the Summer Palace in the evening. The British general, however, changed his mind and halted at the Tihshing Gate after the Tartars were driven away, but the

French pushed on and got possession of the chief gate of the Summer Palace, which was defended by some eunuchs.

October 6.—The French looted the Palace.

October 7.—The English allowed to loot.

October 8.—Loot recalled, sold, and the produce apportioned.

October 18.—The 1st division, under General Michel, sent out to burn all the Imperial buildings in and near the Summer Palace.

October 20.—The An-ting Gate delivered up to us and occupied conjointly by the French and English.

October 24.—Grand entrance into the city with Lord Elgin to ratify the treaty. The ceremony took place at the Hall of Ceremonies, and the convention was signed by Prince Kung, the Emperor's brother.

October 25.—French treaty signed. The English Ambassador took up his residence in Peking, guarded by the Royals. The French Ambassador came in on the following day.

November 1.—The French army marched this morning for Tientsin, leaving one regiment as guard of honor to Baron Gros.

November 6.—Treaty proclaimed throughout Peking and placarded on all conspicuous places.

November 7.—Half the troops under General Napier returned to Tientsin.

November 9.—The rest of the army leaves Peking, as also the Embassy, leaving Interpreter Adkins to pass the winter in the city and prepare an establishment for Mr. Bruce, who will return by next spring. Mr. Bruce was yesterday introduced to Prince Kung.

November 12.—Treaty published in 'Peking Gazette.' "

THE RISE OF SARDINIA.

Meantime another great power was coming into existence in Europe. Sardinia had sent troops to the Crimea as an ally of England and France. These did not play a great part in the war, but Sardinia was thus entitled to a place in the Congress of Paris at the close of the war, and there her great Minister, Count Cavour, appeared on an equal footing with the plenipotentiaries of the great powers, and adroitly seized the opportunity to represent the evils which Italy suffered from foreign occupation. From this time Sardinia was practically recognized by all Italians as the representative and leader of the national cause. A subscription was

raised in the chief towns of the peninsula to assist in the fortification of Alessandria. Austria was bitterly exasperated, and the Austrian Minister was recalled from Turin. It was evident that the struggle could not be long delayed. Sardinia could not hope to contend single-handed with Austria, and relied for assistance upon the sympathies of Napoleon III.

ATTEMPT TO KILL NAPOLEON.

So far no tangible results had been obtained from the French alliance, and at this crisis an event occurred which almost broke it off altogether. On January 14, 1858, Orsini, a member of the secret society of the *Carbonari*, attempted to assassinate the French Emperor by throwing bombs under his carriage as he was going to the opera. The Emperor himself escaped unhurt, but nearly one hundred and fifty of the bystanders were either killed or wounded by the explosion. A very stringent "law of public safety" was adopted in France, which placed the persons and property of all suspected persons at the mercy of the Government. But the most important result of the *attentat* was the sudden change of relations with England and Piedmont. Both countries were denounced as harboring and protecting assassins. With England the quarrel became a serious one. The "*Moniteur*" published addresses from the French colonels to the Emperor, which contained the most offensive references to England, and excited a storm of indignation in that country; the volunteer force was organized, Palmerston's Ministry had to resign, and the government of Lord Derby showed a manifest inclination to support Austria against French designs in Italy.

The relations between France and Italy were naturally affected by the *attentat*. Orsini was an Italian and belonged to an Italian society. The reactionary and clerical parties in France tried to utilize the occasion to detach Napoleon III from his connection with Italy. Walewski, the French foreign Minister, called upon the Government of Turin to introduce modifications into the laws in order to protect foreign rulers against the plots of assassins, and to satisfy public opinion in France. But Victor Emanuel refused to alter the constitution at the dictation of a foreign power. The only concession he would make was the passing of a law prohibiting the publication in Sardinia of articles which tended to provoke rebellion against friendly governments. In the end the act of Orsini rather helped than thwarted the aspirations of Italy. The motive for the plot

was that Napoleon had broken his solemn pledges to the Italian patriots. He could not disarm the assassin more effectually than by giving some signal proof that he was still devoted to the cause which he had adopted in his youth. In July he had an interview at Plombieres with Cavour, at which it was secretly arranged that France would support Sardinia in case of a war with Austria. This was followed by the conclusion of a secret treaty, which confirmed the arrangement of Plombieres, and agreed that Lombardy and Venetia should be annexed to Sardinia to form a Kingdom of Northern Italy. In return for these concessions, Victor Emanuel pledged himself to cede Savoy and Nice to France.

WAR WITH AUSTRIA.

The neutral powers did all they could to avert the approaching war, and proposed that the grievances of Italy should be submitted to a Congress. Cavour had to exert all his diplomatic abilities to prevent a compromise, and at the same time to disguise any apparent desire for war. The assistance of France could not be looked for unless Austria could be represented as the aggressor. Fortunately the Government at Vienna stepped in to assist its enemies. Austria refused to allow that Sardinia should be represented at a Congress to settle the affairs of Italy, and finally sent an ultimatum to Turin demanding disarmament within three days under penalty of immediate war. This was exactly what Cavour was waiting for. He refused the demand, and the Austrian army, 200,000 strong, at once crossed the Ticino (May 27th) and occupied Novara and Vercelli. Had they marched straight upon Turin they could have seized the city long before the arrival of aid from France. But the Austrian commanders showed signal incompetence throughout the campaign, and the opportunity was lost. Napoleon III lost no time in fulfilling his obligation to his ally, and assumed the command of the French army in person. On May 13th he landed at Genoa and was there joined by Victor Emanuel. The Sardinian troops were to act as the auxiliaries of the French, and a body of volunteers, the famous "hunters of the Alps," was organized under the command of Garibaldi to harass the Austrians in the broken country at the foot of the Alps. The campaign was short and decisive. No conspicuous generalship was shown on either side, but the superior fighting power of the French gave them the victory.

MAGENTA AND SOLFERINO.

The battle of Magenta (June 4th), at which MacMahon won the marshal's baton, gave Milan to the allies, and forced the Austrians to retire upon the Quadrilateral. Francis Joseph now assumed the command at Verona, and at Solferino (June 24th) the three sovereigns all appeared upon the field. It was a soldiers battle, and after ten hours' obstinate fighting, in which both sides suffered enormous losses, the Austrians were again completely defeated.

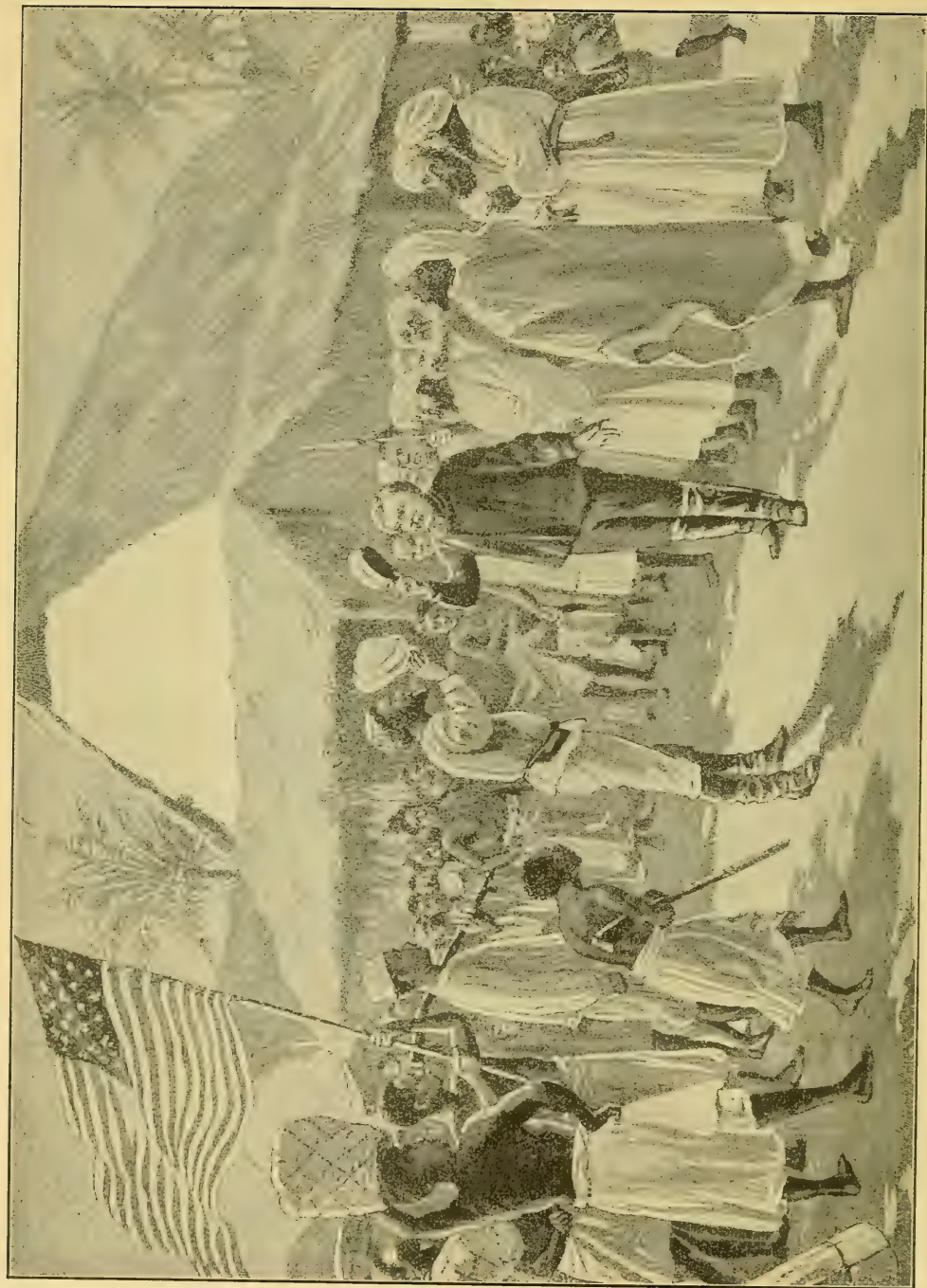
The rapid success of the allies had roused the utmost enthusiasm in Italy. Leopold II of Tuscany fled to the Austrian camp, and a provisional government was erected in Florence. Parma, Modena and Bologna were deserted by their rulers. From all these States envoys appeared to offer the sovereignty to Victor Emanuel. The question of annexation was deferred until after the conclusion of peace, but in the meanwhile the King sent commissioners to undertake a provisional regency in his name.

PEACE OF VILLAFRANCA.

At this moment, when the freedom of northern and central Italy seemed assured, and the allies were preparing for the conquest of Venetia, the news fell like a thunderbolt upon the Italian patriots that Napoleon III had granted an armistice to the Austrians and had concluded the preliminaries of a peace at Villafranca (July 12th). By this arrangement Lombardy was to be ceded to Sardinia; Austria was to retain Venetia and the Quadrilateral; the old rulers were to be restored in Tuscany, Modena, Parma and the Roman Legations, and Italy was to be organized as a federation under the honorary presidency of the Pope. The final settlement was to be agreed upon in a conference at Zurich of plenipotentiaries from Austria, France and Sardinia. Napoleon's motives for thus breaking his promises were eagerly debated at the time, but are now tolerably clear. He was carrying on the war not only for Italy, but also for France. French public opinion, which he could not afford to disregard, was ready to welcome any weakness of Austria, but looked with fear and suspicion upon the erection of a strong and united state in Italy. It was obvious that the victories of the allies would give to Sardinia, not only Lombardy and Venetia, but the whole of central Italy, and this was more than Napoleon had contemplated at Plombieres. Moreover, the annexation of the Legations would bring



1871—CRUELTIES OF WAR—SHOOTING SPIES



1871—STANLEY FINDS LIVINGSTONE IN AFRICA

him into collision with the Papacy, and the Empire was not strong enough to dispense with the support of the priests. Personal motives had also great weight with him. He had done enough for fame, but he was conscious that his victories were not due to his own generalship, and that an attack on the Quadrilateral would be difficult and probably dangerous.

UNION OF NORTHERN ITALY.

Victor Emanuel was bitterly disappointed by the sudden blow to his hopes. Cavour urged him to repudiate the treaty, to refuse the cession of Lombardy, and to throw the whole responsibility of the measure upon Napoleon III. But the King was too prudent to take this advice, and Cavour resigned, his place being taken by Rattazzi. Victor Emanuel accepted the treaty of Villafranca "*pour ce qui me concerne*," and obtained a promise from the Emperor that he would not tolerate any forcible restoration of the rulers of Tuscany, Parma, Modena and the Legations. It was certain that the people would not do it of their own accord, especially while they were assured of the sympathy and moral support of Piedmont. The Sardinian commissioners were recalled, but their place was taken by provisional governments. Parma and Modena were united into a single State under the name of Emilia. In complete disregard of the treaty of Villafranca, which was confirmed by the conference of Zurich, representative assemblies were summoned, and voted for the annexation of their respective provinces to the Sardinian monarchy. Victor Emanuel received their envoys graciously, and promised to do all in his power to obtain the approval of Europe for their wishes. It was suggested that a European Congress should meet to discuss the question. The proposal came to nothing, but it served to reconcile Victor Emanuel and Cavour. The latter was the only man who could be trusted to represent the Italian cause among the diplomatists of Europe.

In January, 1860, Rattazzi resigned and Cavour was entrusted with the formation of a new Ministry. Great exertions were made to induce the Pope to listen to the demands of his subjects. But Pius IX would not hear of any diminution of his temporal power, and it was evident that Victor Emanuel must again risk a quarrel with the Papacy. To conciliate the French Emperor, Cavour determined that the wishes of

the central provinces should be expressed by a plebiscite. The result was a foregone conclusion, and in March, 1860, Tuscany, Emilia and Romagna were formally annexed to Sardinia. In the next month a Parliament met in which the new provinces were represented, and the annexation was enthusiastically confirmed. The deposed princes issued futile protests, and the Pope resorted to his last weapon of excommunication.

SAVOY AND NICE.

Napoleon III discovered that it was easier to excite a storm than to allay it. In France the recent expedition was attacked as a quixotic enterprise in which French interests had been sacrificed to the aggrandizement of Sardinia. To satisfy his subjects the Emperor now demanded the cession of Savoy and Nice, which had hitherto been dropped because its condition, the annexation of Venetia with Lombardy, had not been fulfilled. It was hard for Victor Emanuel to give up the country which had been the cradle of his race, but political interests were imperative. By Cavour's advice he consented to the sacrifice on condition that the approval should be obtained both of the Savoyards and the Italian Parliament. In the latter a violent debate took place. Garibaldi had been born in Nice, and expressed bitter resentment at its annexation by a foreign ruler. But the majority of Italians cared little for Savoy, which really stood outside the peninsula, and had no sympathy with the national cause. The annexation was approved by 229 votes to 233. Thus the last step was taken in the long process by which the house of Savoy was transformed into a purely Italian dynasty.

GARIBALDI LIBERATES NAPLES AND SICILY.

The monarchy of Victor Emanuel now included the whole of Italy with the exception of three provinces, Venetia, the remaining Papal States, and the Two Sicilies. In the latter kingdom the brutal Ferdinand II (Bomba) had been succeeded in 1859 by his son, Francis II. Overtures had been made to the new King from Turin, proposing the formation of a constitutional monarchy in southern Italy, which should co-operate with Sardinia in supporting the national cause against the foreigner. But Francis II refused to alter the system of government bequeathed by his father, and clung obstinately to the Austrian alliance.

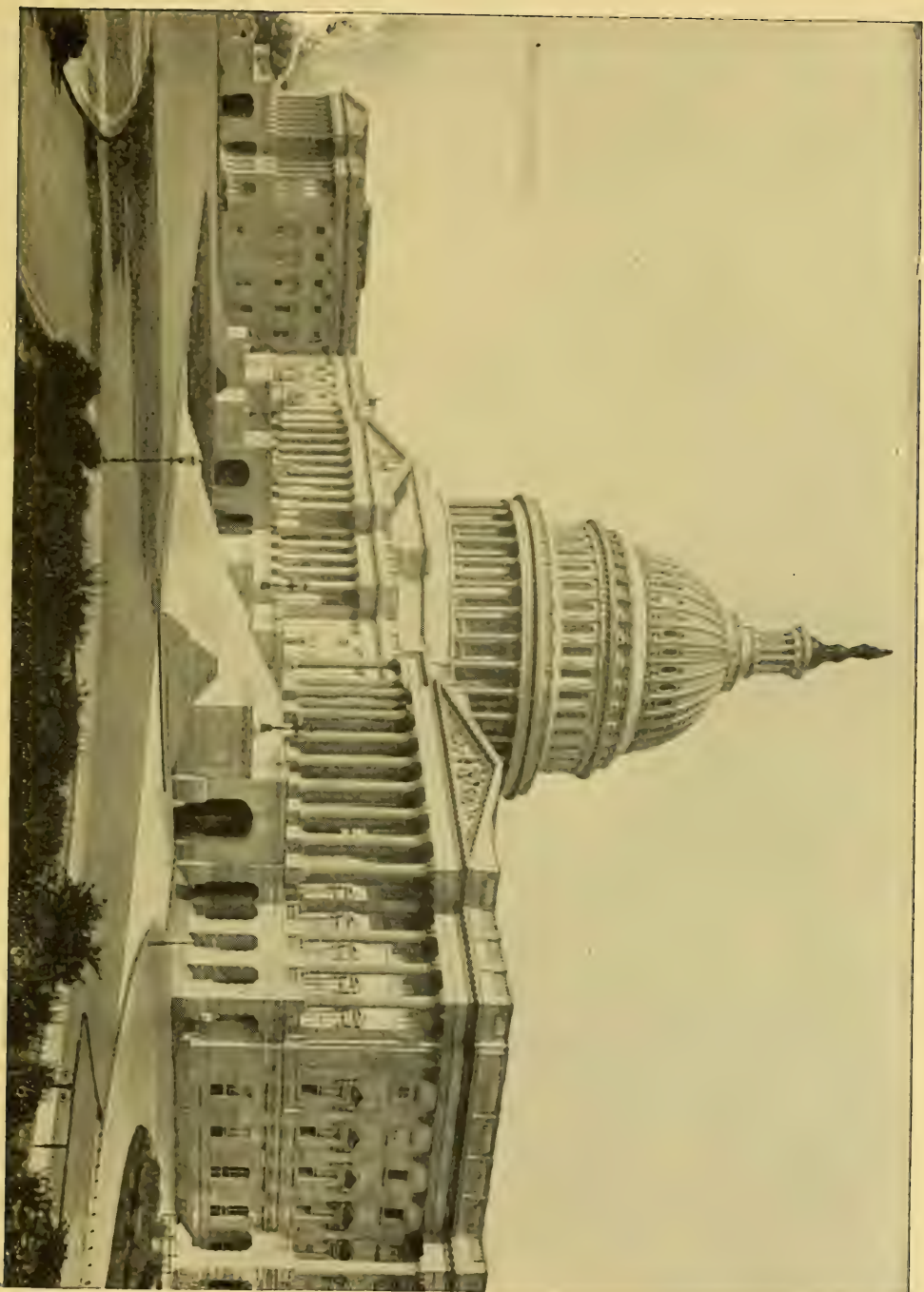
Under these circumstances a contest between the north and south was inevitable. But Victor Emanuel could not venture on another war for his own aggrandizement without alienating Europe and risking a quarrel with France. A solution of the difficulty was offered by an independent adventurer, whose zeal for the cause of Italy was not affected by any regard for the scruples of kings and princes. Garibaldi, indignant at the unpatriotic sacrifice of Nice, was eager to find a new field of action, and determined to offer himself as a champion to the oppressed subjects of the house of Bourbon. Collecting a thousand volunteers at Genoa, he sailed to Sicily and landed near Marsala (May 14, 1860). Within two months the whole island had been secured by the reduction of Palermo (June 6th) and Messina (June 25th). Garibaldi became an almost mythical hero, and his fame began to overshadow that of Victor Emanuel and Cavour. Francis II now hastened to announce his intention of granting a constitution and allying himself with Sardinia. But it was too late to win the confidence of a people that had so often suffered from the perfidy of their rulers. Garibaldi crossed over to the mainland, met with absolutely no resistance, and entered Naples in triumph (September 7th). Francis II retired with 20,000 troops to Gaeta, while another part of his army occupied Capua.

DEFEAT OF THE PAPAL ARMY.

Meanwhile Pius IX had commenced a crusade for the recovery of the Legations, and entrusted the command of his army to the French General, Lamoricière. The Government of Turin demanded the disarmament of this force, and on the Pope's refusal an army under Cialdini entered Umbria. At Castel Fidardo the Papal army, a disorganized rabble of different nationalities, was utterly routed (September 14th). Lamoricière had to surrender in Ancona, and was sent back to France. Austria, Russia, Prussia and France expressed their disapproval of the invasion of Papal territory by recalling their Ambassadors from Turin. But Victor Emanuel, having made up his mind to brave the perils of excommunication, was not much impressed with this diplomatic protest. He followed his army to Ancona and proceeded thence into Naples. An attack upon Rome or the surrounding Patrimony of St. Peter would have brought the Sardinians into collision with the French garrison, and would certainly have roused the hostility of Napoleon III.

VICTOR EMANUEL KING OF ITALY.

The rapid success of Garibaldi involved an unexpected danger for Sardinia. He had not been in any formal connection with the court of Turin, and had, in fact, conquered Naples against its will. Instead of annexing his conquest to Victor Emanuel's kingdom, he assumed the title of Dictator, and went so far as to demand the dismissal of Cavour. Mazzini urged him to form a republic of Naples, and such an act must have retarded, if it did not prevent, the union of Italy. But Cavour acted with politic decision. Representing to the French Emperor that his action was necessary to thwart the revolutionary party, he assembled the Parliament and obtained from it a decree authorizing the annexation of the conquered Papal Provinces and the Two Sicilies. Garibaldi found it necessary to play a more humble part than had been suggested to him. He was still engaged in besieging Capua when the arrival of the Sardinian army compelled the capitulation of the fortress. He laid down his temporary dictatorship, acknowledged the authority of Victor Emanuel, and retired, covered with glory, to his island home at Caprera. The siege of Gaeta was now commenced in form by Cialdini. For some time the presence of the French fleet prevented an attack by sea, but at last, on February 16, 1861, Francis II had to surrender, and sought refuge in Rome. A real Italian kingdom had now been formed by the addition of Umbria, the Marches and the Two Sicilies. Nearly 23,000,000 subjects acknowledged the rule of Victor Emanuel. There were difficulties and dangers to be confronted in the future. National unity could not be created all at once. The population of the south had had no training to fit them for the enjoyment of constitutional liberties, and some time must elapse before Naples could stand on the same political level as Piedmont or Tuscany. The Austrians still held Venetia, and would seize the first opportunity to recover their lost supremacy. Rome, with its Papal Government and French garrison, was not yet Italian, and provincial jealousies must continue as long as any but the Eternal City was regarded as the capital. But all these considerations were forgotten on February 18, 1861, when the first Italian Parliament, containing representatives from all the provinces except Venetia and the Patrimony, met in the Palazzo Carignano at Turin. Vociferous cheers greeted the arrival of "Victor Emanuel II, by the grace of God and the will of the nation, King of Italy." This ceremony was followed within a few weeks by the



1873—CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON COMPLETED

1872.

1873.



1874.

1875.



1876.

1877.

1878.



1879.

1880.



death of the man who had contributed more than any other to bring about this grand result. Cavour must always rank as one of the ablest diplomatists of the nineteenth century; but he was more than a diplomatist, he was a statesman. His keen perception that Italy could not be set free without foreign assistance; the adroit use which he made of Napoleon III; the way in which he evaded the treaty of Villafranca; and, above all, the masterly manner in which he ousted Garibaldi from Naples, were all diplomatic triumphs of the highest order. But his internal reforms; his measures for the advancement of trade and education; his adherence to liberal principles in the face of a revolutionary party; his appreciation of the difficulties of uniting southern with northern Italy, are no less conclusive proofs of his constructive statesmanship. It was hard for him to die before his work was completed by the acquisition of Venice and Rome, but he may be credited with having anticipated the way in which this completion was to be brought about. He foresaw the rise of Prussia, and sought to enlist the sympathies of that power with the Italian cause. He was anxious to settle the Roman question peaceably so as to avoid offending the Roman Catholic powers. The temporal power had undoubted advantages, but at the same time it imposed serious checks upon the action of the church. Cavour offered the removal of these checks in exchange for the sacrifice of temporal sovereignty. His favorite expression, "*Libera Chiesa in Libero Stato*" (a free Church in a free State), has been rightly chosen as the inscription on his tomb.

INTERESTS OF VARIOUS LANDS.

The year 1858 saw France, assisted by Spain, waging a war with Anam, and thus taking another step toward the upbuilding of a great Indo-Chinese empire for herself. At the same time Russia compelled China to cede to her the great Amoor territory south-east of Siberia.

In Mexico we have to record the fall of President Comonfort. The succession was violently disputed. The clerical and reactionary parties put forward Zuloaga and recognized him as President. The Liberals on the other hand declared Benito Juarez to be President. General Miramon, leader of the reactionary party, was at first successful, but instead of putting Zuloaga into power he seized supreme power for himself in 1859. In 1860, however, Juarez was successful. He overthrew Miramon and became President of Mexico.

Massacres of the Maronites by Druses in the Lebanon, and of Christian at Damascus in 1860, led to the intervention of Europe and the sending of a French force to Syria, as a result of which the Lebanon was formed into a semi-autonomous State with a Christian Governor.

In 1860-61 the Emperor of Austria undertook a re-organization of his complex realm on a federal basis. The constitutional system of consolidation was adopted in February, 1861.

On January 2, 1861, Prince William of Prussia succeeded his brother, King Frederick William IV, as King William I.

The final emancipation of the serfs of Russia dates from March 3, 1861. The Crimean war had exhausted the resources of Russia and had given rise to great discontent in that country. To satisfy his subjects Alexander II adopted a liberal policy and introduced a number of reforms, of which the greatest was the emancipation of the serfs. The peasants on the crown domains, some 20,000,000 in number, received personal freedom by a series of edicts in 1858. More difficulty was experienced in dealing with the serfs of private owners, but, after long negotiations with the territorial lords, the great edict was issued on March 3, 1861. All peasants attached to the soil became free cultivators, with the permanent occupation of part of their land, the rest being left to the lord. The permanent occupation might be exchanged for absolute ownership by a money payment, and the Government organized a system of loans to enable the peasants to free themselves at once by becoming debtors to the State.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

**First Atlantic Cable used for a few Messages—African Exploration—
Livingstone Discovers Lake Nyassa — “Striking Oil”—
Fate of Sir John Franklin — Literary
Landmarks—The Death Roll.**

WE have hitherto told of the invention of the electric telegraph, and of the earliest attempts to operate it by means of submarine cables. After the practicability of cables across such bits of water as the British Channel was fully demonstrated, there were grave doubts of the possibility of extending it across so vast an expanse of water as the Atlantic Ocean. In 1853, however, Cyrus West Field, of New York, became interested in the subject. His first venture was the building of a land line across Newfoundland, to receive and transmit news brought by swift steamships from the coast of Ireland. The next year he obtained from the Government of Newfoundland for a period of fifty years the exclusive right to land upon the coast of that island telegraphic cables crossing the Atlantic Ocean. This was little noticed at the time, save as the whim of a visionary, which never could be realized. But Mr. Field was in earnest. He formed a company, which he called the New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Company, his associates being Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts, and Chandler White. In 1856 this company had completed its lines from New York to the eastern coast of Newfoundland. But then the real work was to begin.

Mr. Field went to London in 1856, and there organized the Atlantic Telegraph Company, of which he himself furnished one-fourth of the capital. He prevailed upon the British and United States Governments to furnish the ships for carrying and laying the cable. The first cable-laying expedition set out in 1857, Mr. Field himself accompanying it. The work of laying the cable was begun at Valentia, Ireland, on August 5, 1857, the vessels employed being the

"Niagara" and "Susquehanna," of the United States, and the "Leopard" and "Agamemnon," British. After paying out a few miles, the cable snapped. It was repaired, and the vessels went on. On August 11, when they had laid about 500 miles, the cable snapped again, and the ships returned to Plymouth. On June 20-21, 1858, a second attempt was made, but was brought to failure by a violent storm. The third attempt was successful. The vessels made their way from Ireland to Newfoundland, and joined Europe and America with 2050 miles of wire. On August 16, 1858, the first message was sent, from Queen Victoria to President Pierce, and the second was the President's reply to the Queen. This event caused world-wide rejoicing, which was, however, destined to be short-lived. The cable had not been properly made. Its insulation failed, and by September 4 it altogether failed to work. A new company was promptly formed, to perfect the undertaking which was now seen to be practicable, and a few years later the task which Mr. Field had set before himself was successfully accomplished. The story of that triumph belongs, however, to a later chapter.

AFRICAN EXPLORATION.

The work of African exploration was steadily pressed. In 1857 the great area of Damara Land, in the south-western part of the Continent, was traversed by Hahn and Rath, German explorers, from which fact Germany in after years derived her title to that territory. Dr. Bastian was at that time exploring parts of the Angola and Congo country, and Paul Du Chaillu was at work on the west coast. Under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society of Great Britain, Captains Burton and Speke, who had already done good work at Harrar, a trading centre in Somali Land, set out from Zanzibar to survey the interior of the continent, and especially to find if possible certain great lakes, the existence of which had been reported by the Mombas missionaries. Their most successful effort was made in 1857-9, which resulted in the discovery of the great Lake Tanganyika, in a deep basin in eastern Africa, and of the southern portion of another large lake lying to the north thereof, which Speke believed to be the source of the Nile. Captain Speke was anxious to extend his knowledge of this marvelous country, and in 1860 he set out with Captain Grant on another expedition, the results of which were of the

highest interest, and will be related in their proper chronological order in another chapter.

Meantime, Petherick, Lejean, Miani, the Poncets, Antinori, Debono, Peney, and others were exploring the Nile valley from the Egyptian end, and the French scientist Duveyrier was exploring the Algerian Sahara.

LIVINGSTONE DISCOVERS LAKE NYASSA.

The Zambesi expedition, of which Livingstone was commander, sailed from Liverpool in H. M. S. "Pearl" on March 10, 1858, and reached the mouth of the Zambesi on May 14, and the party ascended the river from the Kongone mouth in a steam launch, the "Ma-Robert," reaching Tette on September 8. The remainder of the year was spent in examining the river above Tette, and especially the Kebrabasa rapids. Most of the year 1859 was spent in the exploration of the river Shire and Lake Nyassa, which was discovered in September; and much of the year 1860 was spent by Livingstone in fulfilling his promise to take such of the Makalolo home as cared to go. In January of next year arrived Bishop Mackenzie and a party of missionaries sent out by the Universities Mission to establish a station on the upper Shire.

"STRIKING OIL."

The year 1858 was made memorable by the beginning of the great petroleum industry in the United States. In the earliest Colonial days the existence of a natural mineral oil had been known, and the oil had been gathered in a rude way and used for medicinal purposes by the Indians and the Colonists. In the first quarter of this century many wells were sunk in eastern Pennsylvania, Ohio, and adjacent regions, for salt water, from which to manufacture salt. Some of these yielded a crude oil, which was merely enough to spoil the brine and, as was supposed, to make the well worthless. A well in Kentucky, 1829, yielded so much and so good oil, however, that the proprietor bottled the oil and sold it for medicinal purposes.

The refining of petroleum and use of it for illuminating purposes were first undertaken in France, in 1834. Twenty years later a patent was taken out in this country for a similar process, and then

men began to see the value of the oil they had formerly regarded as worthless. The Pennsylvania Rock Oil Company was formed in 1854, for the purpose of procuring oil at Oil Creek, Pennsylvania. It did not prosper, and in 1858 leased its land near the present city of Titusville to a portion of its stockholders, who employed Colonel Drake to sink an artesian well thereon. After numerous unsuccessful efforts, a well was driven to a depth of sixty-nine feet, and then began to yield an abundant flood of fine petroleum. The success of this well was the signal for such a rush as may be compared only with the rush for gold in California. The country was soon dotted with wells, of which many were worthless, but many others were prolific of oil, and thus one of the greatest and most profitable industries in the world had its origin. The precise date of "striking oil" in Colonel Drake's well was August 29, 1859.

FATE OF SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.

While these important discoveries were being made in Equatorial Africa, other explorers were busy in the Arctic regions. In 1859 McClintock succeeded where so many had failed, and discovered the fate of Sir John Franklin and his comrades. It was ascertained that the entire Franklin expedition had perished, but not before it had in 1846 discovered the North-west Passage which had been the object of its illustrious leader's quest; so that Franklin was triumphant, though at the cost of his life.

The same year, 1859, saw Russia victorious over the tribes of the Caucasus by her defeat of Shamyl at Ghunib on September 6. Thus another step toward Russian domination of Asia was effected.

Oscar I of Sweden was in 1859 succeeded by his son, Charles XV, the latter having been Regent for two years.

LITERARY LANDMARKS.

Two noteworthy literary landmarks of the age must here be noted. In 1857 the first part of Buckle's "History of Civilization in England" was published. In 1859 appeared a still greater work, marking an epoch in science. This was Charles Darwin's "Origin of Species," which forms the foundation of the whole system of evolutionary philosophy.

Another event of vast importance in the world of science was the introduction of spectrum analysis, by Kirchhoff and Bunsen. This marvelous invention may be said to have revolutionized several of the chief departments of science, including chemistry and astronomy.

THE DEATH ROLL.

Illustrious names were plentifully added to "the silent majority" in the years of which we are writing. The year 1857 saw the deaths of Alfred de Musset and Beranger, two of the most noted of French lyric poets; of Eugene Sue, the author of "The Wandering Jew" and similar works, which laid the foundation of a new school of French fiction; and of Comte, the philosopher and founder of Positivism.

In 1859 the world lost three of its greatest historians in Hallam, Prescott, and Macaulay; De Tocqueville, the author of "Democracy in America," a work which has become a classic; Washington Irving, one of the chief adornments of America literature; De Quincey, one of the greatest of critics and essayists; Humboldt, one of the most colossal figures in the world of natural science; Metternich, the last of the giants of the old school of diplomacy and reactionary government; and Schopenhauer, founder of the pessimistic school of philosophy.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Abraham Lincoln becomes President of the United States—Plans of Secessionists—Beginning of the War—The Great Uprising—The First Fighting—Bull Run—The “Trent” Affair—Fort Donelson—Pittsburg Landing—“Merrimac” and Monitor—Capture of New Orleans—McClellan’s Campaigns—The Second Bull Run—Antietam—Emancipation—Operations in the West—Vicksburg—Chancellorsville—Gettysburg—Riots in New York—Chickamauga—Grant in Virginia—Winchester—Sherman’s March—Thomas in Tennessee—Naval Operations—End of the War—Assassination of Lincoln—President Johnson—Impeachment.

THE history of Lincoln’s administration as President of the United States is a history chiefly of civil war and of the abolition of slavery. We have already related how, during the period between Lincoln’s election in November, 1860, and his inauguration on March 4, 1861, several of the Southern States seceded from the Union, organized themselves in a new Confederacy, and prepared for war. At this time the population of the entire country was more than 31,000,000. Of these, 9,000,000 were in the seceding Southern States, 3,700,000 of them being negro slaves, while in the loyal States of the North there were more than 22,000,000. In point of wealth, the superiority of the North over the South was still more marked. Nearly all the manufactures of the nation were in the Northern States. The South was almost exclusively an agricultural country, cotton, sugar, tobacco and rice being its great staples. Away back in Jackson’s Administration South Carolina had violently resisted the imposition of a protective tariff, and other Southern States had sympathized with her. Now, in the new Confederacy a protective tariff was constitutionally prohibited. The result was that the Confederacy found itself without manufactures and unable to create them, and dependent for manufactured goods upon importations from abroad. As soon as the Federal Government was able to blockade

the Southern ports and prevent imports, the Confederacy was deprived of necessary supplies. On the score of fiscal policy, therefore the advantage rested with the North as decidedly as in other respects.

PLANS OF SECESSIONISTS.

It was the hope and expectation of the secessionists that all the slave States would secede. In this they were disappointed, for in addition to the States mentioned in a preceding chapter as having seceded, only four others withdrew from the Union. They were Arkansas, Tennessee, North Carolina and Virginia. These did not secede from the Union until after Lincoln's inauguration and the actual beginning of hostilities. When the war actually began in South Carolina, and Lincoln called on the various State Governments for troops, the Governors of these States refused to respond to the call, and the States thereupon seceded. There were, however, many strong Unionists in North Carolina and Arkansas, and nearly all the people in the eastern part of Tennessee remained loyal to the Union. In the western part of Virginia the Union sentiment was so strong that a solid block of forty counties seceded from the State and organized themselves into a new State, which was afterwards admitted into the Union as West Virginia. By this separation a new and loyal State was added to the Union, and the old State of Virginia was deprived of about two-fifths of her territory and one-fourth of her population, and was reduced in rank among the States from fifth to ninth. Even with this loss, however, Virginia remained the most populous and most important State of the Southern Confederacy, and in May, 1861, the capital of the Confederacy was removed from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia. This fact, and the proximity of Virginia to the seat of the National Government at Washington, made Virginia the chief battle-ground of the war.

The secessionists also counted upon material aid from the Democrats at the North. In this they were disappointed. They did receive a little aid and encouragement from a few Democrats who were popularly termed "Copperheads," but the great mass of the Northern Democracy followed the example of Senator Douglas and other eminent leaders, and loyally supported President Lincoln in his efforts to preserve the Union. The secessionists also hoped for substantial aid from France and England, if not for actual intervention in their behalf. They knew that the great cot-

ton factories of England depended upon the Southern States for their supply of raw material. Blockade of the Southern ports would therefore mean great industrial distress in England, and might lead to intervention. As a matter of fact the cotton industries of England were almost entirely prostrated by the war, and a strong sentiment in favor of the South was thus aroused. Some aid was clandestinely given to the South also by individual Englishmen, including Mr. Gladstone, in the way of fitting out privateers to prey upon American commerce. But largely through the personal influence of the Queen, the British Government remained neutral and entirely friendly to the United States, and when the French Emperor, Louis Napoleon, proposed armed intervention in favor of the South, and the Russian Government agreed to the proposition, the British Government peremptorily vetoed it, and insisted that the United States should be left unhampered in its efforts to preserve its national existence.

BEGINNING OF THE WAR.

Lincoln became President on March 4th. At that time the Government of South Carolina had already seized some of the National fortifications at Charleston, and was threatening to seize the most important of them all, Fort Sumter. On April 8th the Governor of South Carolina was notified that reinforcements and supplies were forthwith to be sent by the Federal Government to the garrison of Fort Sumter. He telegraphed this information to Jefferson Davis, the President of the Confederacy, at Montgomery, and a Cabinet meeting was at once called to determine what should be done. Most of the Confederate leaders were in favor of violent resistance. The only one who took a decided stand against it was the Secretary of State, Robert Toombs, formerly a United States Senator from Georgia. He had always had the reputation of being a "fire-eater," but on this occasion his counsels were conservative and peaceful. To fire upon Fort Sumter, he said, "would surely inaugurate a civil war greater than any the world has yet seen. You will wantonly strike a hornet's nest which extends from mountains to ocean, and legions now quiet will swarm out and sting us to death. It is unnecessary. It puts us in the wrong. It is fatal." Despite this warning, which subsequent events fulfilled, the other Confederate officers decided upon war. President Davis sent orders to General Beauregard at Charleston

to demand the evacuation of Fort Sumter by the Federal troops, and in case the demand was not complied with, to attack the fort and reduce it. The demand was made. The Federal officer in command, Major Robert Anderson, refused to surrender. Thereupon a bombardment of the fort was begun by the Confederate batteries encircling it. The attack was begun on the morning of Friday, April 12th, and was continued until the following Sunday afternoon. Many thousands of men took part in the attack, while the defenders of the fort numbered only seventy. At last the little garrison surrendered and marched out with colors flying. Not a man was killed on either side.

THE GREAT UPRISING.

Thus the war began. On Monday, April 15th, President Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for 75,000 troops to suppress the rebellion. Two days later Jefferson Davis replied with a proclamation authorizing the fitting out of privateers to destroy United States commerce. Two days later still, President Lincoln declared the whole Southern coast, from South Carolina to Texas, in a state of blockade. Thus on both sides war was unmistakably declared. By a curious coincidence the first actual bloodshed occurred on April 19th, the anniversary of the first shedding of blood in the Revolutionary War. On that day a regiment from Massachusetts, on its way to Washington in response to the President's call, was fired upon by a mob in the city of Baltimore, and several men were killed.

The fall of Fort Sumter did indeed, as Mr. Toombs had predicted, "strike a hornet's nest." Instantly there was a tremendous uprising of patriotic feeling throughout the North. The whole nation started into action. Lincoln's first call was for 75,000 troops. Within a few weeks, more than 300,000 were placed at his disposal.

THE FIRST FIGHTING.

The first military operations of importance were in the border State of Missouri. This was a most important State, and desperate efforts were made on the one side to draw it into the Confederacy, and on the other to hold it loyal to the Union. The majority of the people favored the Union, but the State Government inclined toward secession. The State would undoubtedly have been committed to the cause of secession

had it not been for the prompt action of two loyal men at St. Louis, Frank P. Blair, a lawyer, and Captain Nathaniel Lyon, Commander of the United States Arsenal. In May and June, 1861, these two men organized a movement which overthrew the existing State Government and established in its place one loyal to the Union. A United States force was quickly organized under Lyon and put into the field to oppose the forces which the secessionists were raising, and military operations soon began. In August a battle was fought at Wilson's Creek, in which Lyon was defeated and killed. In spite of this, however, the Union cause was triumphant in Missouri, and the Confederates soon lost their hope of gaining that State.

The border State of Maryland, despite a strong secessionist sentiment in the city of Baltimore, remained steadfastly in the Union. Kentucky did the same. At the beginning of September, 1861, indeed, a Confederate army of 15,000 men, under General Polk, invaded the State and prepared to seize the important town of Paducah, at the junction of the Tennessee and Ohio Rivers, while another Confederate army entered the State by way of Cumberland Gap. These acts strengthened the Union sentiment in the State, and Kentucky remained loyal throughout the war. At this time there was a small Federal force at Cairo, Illinois, under the command of a young colonel of militia named Ulysses Simpson Grant. He was a West Point graduate, and had served in the Mexican War. At the outbreak of the Civil War he had returned to the military service of the country. Three days after the invasion of Kentucky by General Polk, Grant crossed over from Illinois into Kentucky and occupied Paducah. This was a highly important strategic move, equivalent to a great victory for the Union. A few days later the Kentucky Legislature, by an overwhelming majority, directed the Governor to demand the retirement of Polk and the Confederate army from the soil of Kentucky. A motion was also made for a similar demand for the retirement of Grant and the Federal troops, but this was overwhelmingly defeated.

BULL RUN.

The first noteworthy battle of the war occurred on July 21st, at Bull Run, Virginia. A Federal force of 35,000 men, mostly raw recruits, under command of General McDowell, was marching from Washington toward Richmond. At Bull Run it came into conflict with a Confederate

army of about the same size, under Generals Beauregard and J. T. Johnston. For several hours the fighting was sustained without decisive result. Then Confederate reinforcements to the number of several thousand arrived upon the scene. The Union army was thrown into disorder, and panic and a discreditable rout ensued. The total losses in the battle were about 5000 killed and wounded. This defeat was a blow to the Union cause, but it had the valuable effect of further arousing the Northern mind to a realization of the seriousness of the struggle.

A little later the Confederate armies invaded West Virginia and were driven out by Union troops commanded by Generals McClellan and Rosecrans. His successes in those operations raised McClellan high in popular favor, and he was widely acclaimed as a "Young Napoleon." In the fall of 1861 he was summoned to Washington, and there succeeded the venerable General Scott as general commanding the entire United States army. He thereupon devoted himself chiefly to organizing and drilling the great army which had been collected at Washington, and which was known as the Army of the Potomac.

THE "TRENT" AFFAIR.

At the end of 1861 an incident occurred which came very near involving the United States in trouble with Great Britain. Two Southern leaders, Messrs. Mason and Slidell, were sent out as diplomatic agents of the Confederacy to visit England and France and seek the sympathy and aid of those powers. They succeeded in running the blockade and getting to Havana. At that port they embarked on a British mail steamer, the "Trent," for England. On the high seas the "Trent" was overtaken by the United States warship "San Jacinto," commanded by Captain Wilkes, and Messrs. Mason and Slidell were arrested against the protests of the Captain of the "Trent," and were brought to Boston and confined in Fort Warren. This act was at first enthusiastically applauded throughout the Union, and the House of Representatives at Washington adopted a resolution thanking Captain Wilkes. The British Government, however, promptly and vigorously protested, and on sober second thought President Lincoln and Secretary Seward realized that a grave error had been committed. The seizure of Messrs. Mason and Slidell was formally disavowed, and those gentlemen were released. The incident intensified, however, the animosity toward the

United States which was already felt in England on account of the depression in the cotton manufacturing industry.

FORT DONELSON.

The earliest operations of 1862 occurred in the West. The Confederates had massed their forces at various points in Tennessee and in a part of Kentucky. The centre of their lines in that part of the country was at Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, and Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland. Their right extended to Bowling Green, near the centre of Kentucky, and their left to the Mississippi River. At their right they were opposed by the Army of the Cumberland, under General Buell. A part of Buell's army, under General Thomas, won an important Union victory at Mill Spring, Kentucky, in January, 1862, and drove the Confederates back into Tennessee. In February, 1862, General Grant, co-operating with Commodore Foote and his small flotilla of gunboats, captured Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, taking no less than 15,000 Confederates as prisoners of war. At Fort Donelson the Confederate commander tried to negotiate for terms. Grant's reply was, "No terms can be accepted except an unconditional and immediate surrender. I propose to move immediately upon your works." The unconditional surrender of the fort followed. This great victory and the manner in which it was effected made Grant a rival of McClellan as the military idol of the nation. The capture of Fort Donelson was the first really great Union victory, and it was an almost fatal blow to the Confederate cause in that part of the country.

PITTSBURG LANDING.

The next stand made by the Confederates was along the line of the southern border of Tennessee, from Memphis to Chattanooga, the centre of it being on and near the Tennessee River, at Pittsburg Landing, Shiloh and Corinth. The Confederates were there under the command of General Albert Sidney Johnston, one of their very ablest officers, and the second in command was General Beauregard. On the Northern side General Grant and General Buell moved forward to effect a junction at Pittsburg Landing. Learning of their plans Johnston rushed his army up from Corinth toward Pittsburg Landing in order, if possible, to strike and crush Grant's army before Buell's could join it. In this Johnston

was nearly successful. On April 6th the armies met at Shiloh. General Johnston was killed early in the engagement, and Beauregard succeeded him in command. Grant's army suffered dreadful losses, and was driven back to the bank of the Tennessee River. There it made a desperate stand against overwhelming odds, and succeeded in holding its ground until nightfall. Then Buell's army began to arrive. Some Federal gunboats approached on the river and were able to take part in the operations of the next day. On the morning of April 7th the battle was renewed, and for six hours raged with great fury. The result was that the Confederates were driven back in complete disaster. A few weeks later they were driven out of Corinth, and thus the centre of their second line was utterly broken.

"MERRIMAC" AND "MONITOR."

Early in the war the Federal authorities, partly through treason, partly through panic, abandoned the great United States navy yard at Norfolk, Virginia, after setting fire to all the vessels, arsenals and storehouses there. Millions of dollars worth of property were thus destroyed. One of the vessels, the gigantic warship "Merrimac," was only partly destroyed. The Confederates raised her hulk, renamed her the "Virginia," and covered her with a heavy sheathing of railroad iron, sloping up from the water's edge in the form of a barn roof. They provided her with heavy guns and a monstrous iron beak or ram at her bow. This was the first great ironclad warship in the world. The Confederates expected that she would be able easily to destroy any United States ships that might be sent against her, and to approach and bombard New York, Boston and the other great Northern seaports. These expectations came perilously near fulfillment. At Hampton Roads the United States had a fleet of five warships, probably equal in strength to any other five ships in the world, save only the "Merrimac." On March 8, 1862, the "Merrimac" came down from Norfolk and attacked this fleet. Their shot rattled harmlessly on her iron sides, while her cannon-balls went through and through their wooden sides. The great ram of the "Merrimac" crushed in the sides of the "Cumberland" and sent her to the bottom with all her crew. Then the "Merrimac" attacked the "Congress," drove her aground and forced her to surrender. Nightfall interrupted the battle, but there was no reason to doubt that early the next morning

the other three Union ships would be destroyed and the "Merrimac" would proceed on her career of destruction.

But the next day had in store a surprise even greater than that of the appearance of the "Merrimac." Captain John Ericsson, of whom we have already spoken as the inventor of the screw-propeller and the hot-air engine, had invented a type of vessel which he called the "Monitor." This was a small vessel, with all of its hull submerged below the water excepting a few inches of freeboard and the deck, all of which was of iron. Upon the centre of the deck was placed a cylindrical revolving turret of iron, containing two large guns. Very little faith was placed in the efficiency of such a vessel save by Ericsson himself and a few friends. The boat was built very hurriedly at New York, and before she was fully completed, was sent to Hampton Roads to assist, if possible, the other ships there in contending with the "Merrimac," of the preparation of which disquieting rumors had gone abroad. The "Monitor" arrived at Hampton Roads during the night following the "Merrimac's" attack upon the fleet and the destruction of the "Cumberland" and the "Congress." She next cast anchor behind the big wooden frigate "Minnesota," and waited for the morning. Early in the forenoon of the following day the "Merrimac" again approached the Federal fleet and made her first attack upon the "Minnesota." The tiny "Monitor," looking, as was said, "like a cheese-box on a plank," steamed out from behind the frigate and engaged her gigantic adversary.

For an hour the two ironclads battered each other with cannonballs, and the "Merrimac" again and again, but in vain, tried to ram the "Monitor." At the end the "Merrimac" was beaten and was compelled to withdraw from the scene, completely baffled. The "Monitor," scarcely injured, remained the victor, the savior of the Federal navy and of the seaboard cities of the North. In that hour naval warfare was revolutionized. The great wooden navies of the world were seen to be worthless before the advent of the ironclad. It may be added that the "Monitor" was afterwards lost in a storm at sea, while the "Merrimac" was run aground in the James River and burned.

CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The first task of the United States Navy in the war was that of blockading the coast of the Southern States. This was done with note-



JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL



JOHN G. WHITTIER



OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES



RALPH WALDO EMERSON



HENRY W. LONGFELLOW



WILLIAM ALLEN BRYANT



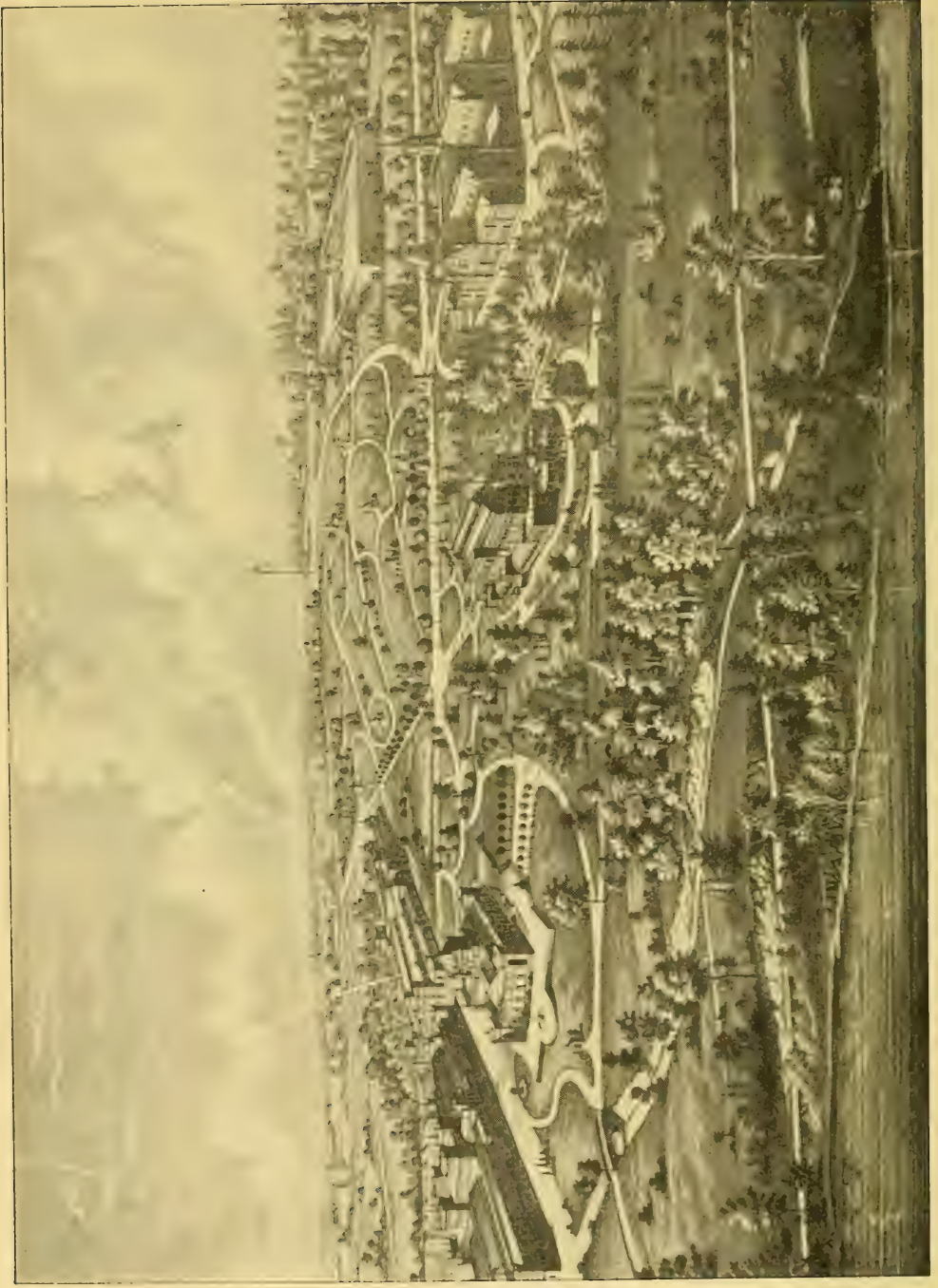
WASHINGTON IRVING



HARRIET BEECHER STOWE



MARK TWAIN



1876—BIRDSEYE VIEW OF THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION AT PHILADELPHIA

worthy effectiveness, but the task called into service the most extraordinary array of naval vessels the world has ever seen. The regular warships of the United States were entirely too few. The Government therefore made use of innumerable merchant ships, fishing boats, yachts, river steamers, and even ordinary ferry boats. This motley fleet served to maintain the blockade and to reduce various Confederate fortifications along the coast. During 1861 the forts at Hatteras Inlet and at Port Royal, South Carolina, were reduced and captured. In April of the next year, soon after the battle at Pittsburg Landing, occurred one of the greatest naval exploits of the war. At that time the Federal fleet, under the command of Admiral Farragut and Commodore Porter, forced its way past the forts of the mouth of the Mississippi River, captured the great city of New Orleans and got control of the river nearly up to Vicksburg. At the same time the fleet of gunboats which had been constructed on the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers opened those streams to the Union forces as far down as Memphis. At the latter point a large fleet of Confederate gunboats was destroyed. These victories gave the Union forces control of the entire Mississippi River with the exception of Vicksburg, which was deemed an impregnable fortress, and was commonly called the Gibraltar of the West.

McCLELLAN'S CAMPAIGN.

In the spring of 1862 General McClellan set out with the Army of the Potomac to capture Richmond. His army was then the largest and best equipped this continent had ever seen. It would probably have defeated all Confederate forces that could be sent against it had not its commander suffered from over caution. McClellan's chief advance was made up the York River. A part of his army, under McDowell, advanced from Washington towards Richmond by way of Fredericksburg. A third division, small in size, under Banks and Fremont, was posted in the Shenandoah to guard against a Confederate advance upon Washington in that direction. The Confederate commander at first was Joseph Johnston. He first detained McClellan for a month in a siege of Yorktown. Then he retreated toward Richmond, lured McClellan's army into a dangerous position on both sides of the Chickahominy River and then turned fiercely upon it. The result was that in the bloody battle of Fair Oaks, on May 31st, McClellan's army was badly defeated and

narrowly escaped destruction. General Johnston was seriously wounded, and General Robert E. Lee succeeded him as the chief Confederate commander.

At about the same time the famous General Thomas J. Jackson, popularly known as "Stonewall" Jackson, made a dashing raid into the Shenandoah Valley, overwhelmed and put to flight the small Union army there, and so menaced Washington that McDowell's army was hastily recalled to defend that city. This enabled Jackson to rejoin Lee near Richmond, and completed the success of the Confederate campaign.

McClellan now changed his base from the York to the James River. While he was doing so Lee attacked him with energy, and a series of desperate battles followed. During the week of June 26th to July 1st, an important battle was fought every day, McClellan steadily falling back after each engagement. His total losses during the week were more than 15,000. The last battle of this series was that of Malvern Hill. The ground on which the Union army made its stand was admirably chosen by Colonel Richard Irwin, and was strongly defended. The result was the disastrous repulse of the Confederates and an unqualified victory for the Army of the Potomac. Had McClellan vigorously prosecuted his advantage he might have crushed Lee and captured Richmond. But he procrastinated, and the advantage was lost.

THE SECOND BULL RUN.

Shortly before the battle of Malvern Hill, McClellan was removed from the chief command of the Federal armies, and that command was given instead to General Halleck, who had gained some borrowed reputation by his participation in the victories of Grant and others in the West. A re-organization of the Federal armies and a new plan of campaign followed. The forces in Northern Virginia were concentrated under General Pope, and McClellan was ordered to abandon his operations against Richmond and to move his army by water to Aquia Creek, where it was to join General Pope. While this movement was being made Lee united his army with that of Stonewall Jackson, and together they attacked Pope at Bull Run on August 28th and 30th. The Union army was utterly defeated, losing more than 14,000 men, while the Confederate losses were about 10,000.

ANTIETAM.

Lee followed up this victory by advancing with his whole army into Maryland, and thus threatening the cities of Washington and Baltimore. A panic prevailed in the North. All available forces were hastily collected and placed under McClellan's command and sent westward through Maryland to head off Lee. The Confederate commander was disappointed to find Maryland by no means friendly to him. He held himself there to be in the enemy's country. There was no hope of getting Maryland to join the Confederacy, so he determined to make a bold dash to capture the city of Washington. He first sent Stonewall Jackson to capture Harper's Ferry, where there was a Union force of 11,000 men guarding the crossing of the Potomac. Jackson took the place, captured the garrison and rejoined Lee before McClellan arrived. The Union and Confederate forces at last came together on September 17th at the little village of Antietam, Maryland. Lee occupied a strong position with about 50,000 veteran soldiers. McClellan had a larger army, numbering about 80,000, but it was by no means so well disciplined and organized. The battle was desperately contested, and the losses amounted to more than 25,000 men. Lee was beaten, though not put to rout. He retired leisurely, however, into Virginia, and thus his first invasion of the North was frustrated. McClellan was not blamed for not more vigorously following up the advantage he had gained, and early in November was removed from his command of the Army of the Potomac, and was succeeded by General Burnside.

EMANCIPATION.

The battle of Antietam, indecisive though it was in some respects, marked a great crisis of the war. We have said that President Lincoln's original intention was not to interfere with slavery in the Southern States unless forced to do so, but to strive simply for the maintenance of the Union. The Antietam campaign convinced him that a change of policy was necessary. He decided to issue a proclamation setting free all slaves in the rebellious States. The Constitution gave him no authority to do this. But ample warrant for such action was found in the sound principles of military law. "I say," said John Quincy Adams on a memorable occasion, "that the military authority takes for the time the place of all municipal institutions. Under that state of things the Presi-

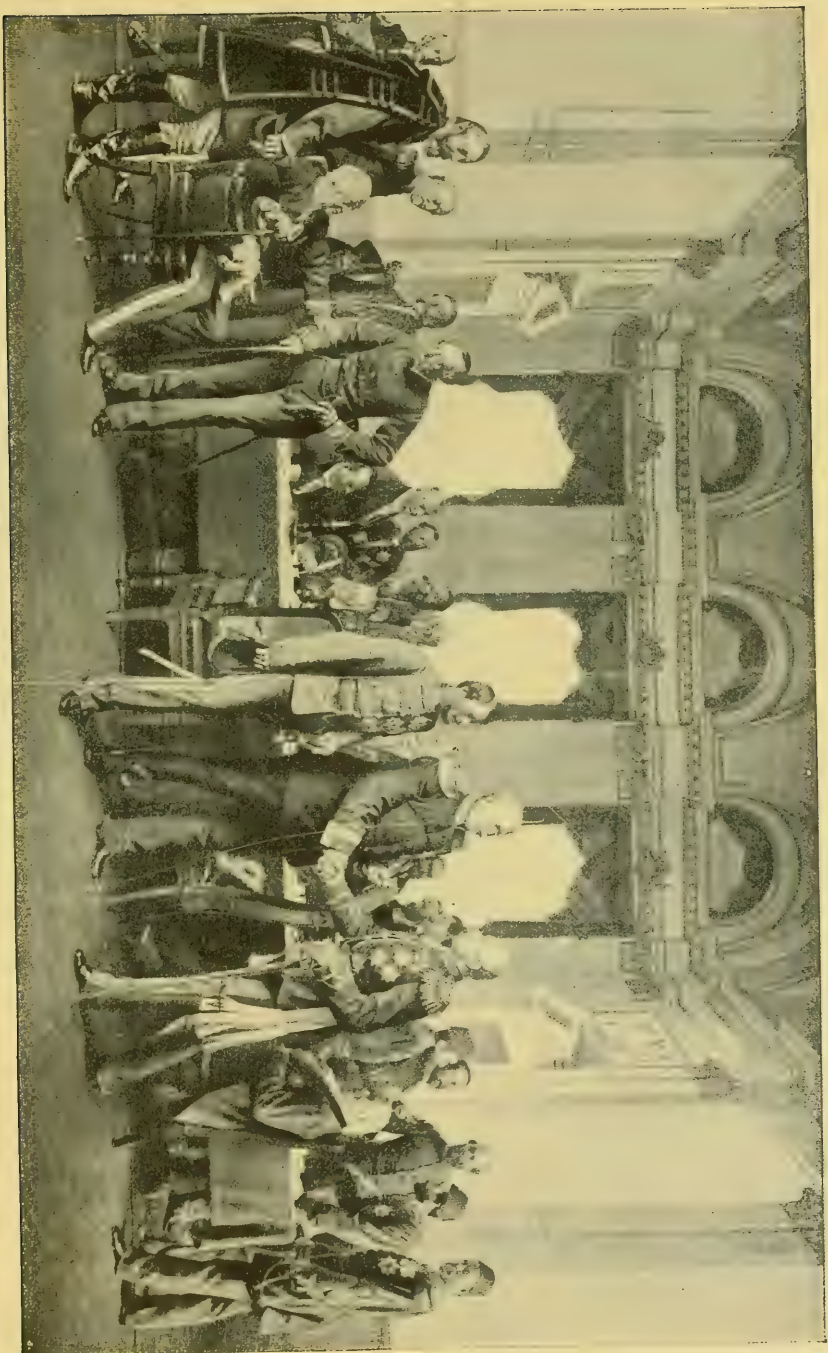
dent of the United States, as Commander of the Army, has power to order the universal emancipation of slaves." Lincoln recalled that memorable utterance, and acted according to its suggestion. Immediately after the battle of Antietam he issued the immortal Emancipation Proclamation. In this he announced that on January 1, 1863, in all States still remaining in rebellion, the slaves should thenceforth and forever be freed. It will be observed that this did not apply to the slaves which were still held in some of the loyal States, such as Kentucky, Maryland and Missouri. It was evident, however, that with the abolition of slavery in the South, the institution would soon come to an end elsewhere. This Proclamation sounded, therefore, the death-knell of human slavery in the United States.

OPERATIONS IN THE WEST.

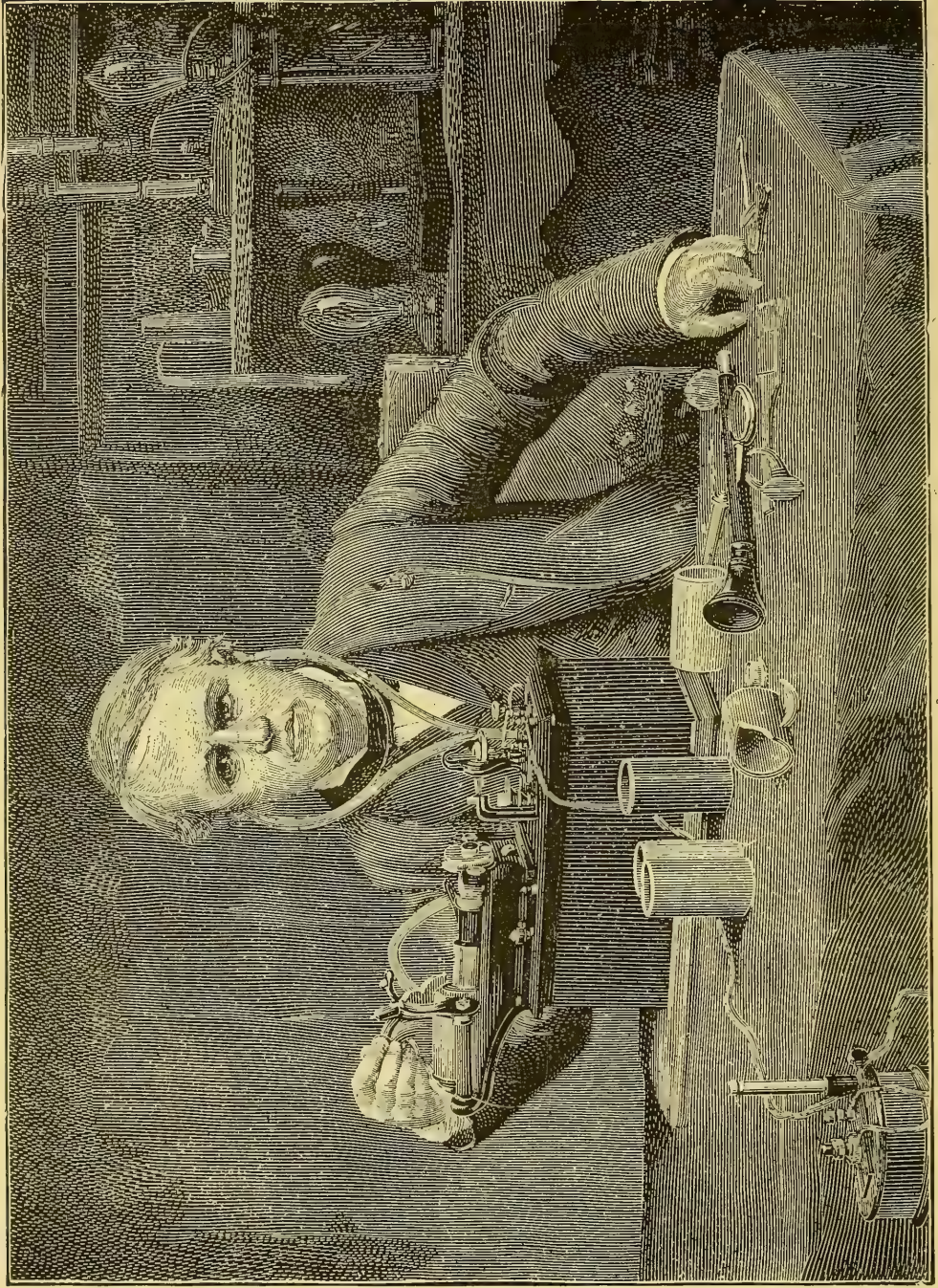
Other incidents of 1862 were a dreadful outbreak of the Sioux Indians in Minnesota and Iowa, in which nearly a thousand men, women and children were butchered; an invasion of Kentucky by the Confederates under General Bragg, starting from Chattanooga, reaching Perryville, and, after a bloody defeat, retreating to Chattanooga; victories by the Union army, under General Rosecrans, at Iuka and Corinth, Mississippi; and finally, on December 31st and January 1st and 2d, a great battle between Rosecrans and Bragg at Stone River, in which more than 20,000 men were killed and wounded, but of which the result was indecisive, though the Confederates were compelled to retire from the field.

VICKSBURG.

At the end of 1862 the Union operations at Vicksburg for the capture of that stronghold began. General Sherman made an attack upon the bluffs at the north side of the town on December 29th, but was defeated. All through the winter the siege of Vicksburg continued. General Grant tried to send his armies around the place at the east, but the Confederates cut his lines of communication and compelled him to retreat to avoid starvation. On the 1st of February Grant took his army to the west side of the Mississippi opposite Vicksburg. During February and March he tried, by digging canals and deepening channels, to open a passageway for gunboats to pass the city of Vicksburg without coming within range of the Confederate batteries. These efforts, how-



1878—BERLIN CONGRESS



1878—THOMAS EDISON, INVENTOR OF THE PHONOGRAPH

ever, proved fruitless. His next scheme was to have Sherman's Division of his army make an attack upon Vicksburg and thus divert attention from the river, and then have Porter's fleet of gunboats run past the batteries and get below Vicksburg, where they could enable Grant's main army to recross the river below the city and make an attack in the rear. At the same time Grant sent General Grierson through the eastern part of Mississippi, making a brilliant raid and inflicting much damage upon the Confederates.

Grant was successful in his scheme for getting across the river below Vicksburg. He crossed at Bruinsburg and defeated the Confederate army at Port Gibson. Thence he advanced upon Vicksburg from the south. After a long campaign, along and near the Big Black River, in which Grant was uniformly successful, the Confederate army under General Pemberton retired into Vicksburg, and that place was closely besieged. This was on May 11th. In eleven days Grant had marched 200 miles, had defeated two armies in five battles, had captured ninety cannon, and had made the downfall of Vicksburg certain.

Two attempts to take Vicksburg by storm followed, but were unsuccessful. Then Grant settled down to reduce the place by siege. In this he was successful. On July 4, 1863, General Pemberton was compelled to surrender the place with his army of 32,000 men, and the Federals thus gained control of the Mississippi River from its source to the sea.

CHANCELLORSVILLE.

Further east, meanwhile, great deeds of arms had been wrought. On December 13, 1862, General Burnside with the Army of the Potomac, made an injudicious assault upon Lee's army at Fredericksburg, where Lee's army occupied a position of great strength. The Union army was defeated with a loss of 12,000 men. Burnside was removed from command and "Fighting Joe" Hooker succeeded him. Active operations were then suspended until spring, when on May 1st to 4th Hooker attacked Lee at Chancellorsville. Hooker had about 90,000 men, and Lee not more than half that number. But Hooker was completely outgeneraled by Lee and was defeated and put to rout. His losses were nearly 30,000 in killed and wounded, and this was the worst defeat sustained by the Union army in the whole war. The Confederate army, however, sustained an irreparable loss in the death of Stonewall

Jackson, who was mortally wounded while successfully effecting the decisive manœuvre of the battle.

GETTYSBURG.

After his great victory at Chancellorsville, Lee again invaded the North. He swept triumphantly across Western Maryland into Pennsylvania, threatening not only Washington and Baltimore, but Philadelphia and New York. General Hooker and General Halleck quarreled, and the former resigned his command. General George Gordon Meade was appointed to succeed him. Meantime the remnant of the Army of the Potomac, together with all other available troops, including raw levies from the North, made a desperate race to catch up with Lee and check him in his formidable career. Only a few days after Meade's appointment as commander of the Army of the Potomac the two armies came together at the little village of Gettysburg, in Southern Pennsylvania. This place controlled the road between Lee's army and the Potomac River, and was, therefore, of strategic importance. On July 1st two corps of the Union army, under Generals Reynolds and Howard, encountered the van of the Confederate army under General A. P. Hill. A severe battle ensued in which the Union army was defeated. General Reynolds was killed and his troops retreated. The Confederates were reinforced by General Ewell and his corps, and the Union army was also strengthened by the arrival of General Hancock and his corps. The Union line was now formed on the crest of Cemetery Ridge, a chain of small hills south of the village. It was a strong position and Meade hurried up his entire army to hold it. On the next day, July 2d, the battle was renewed. Lee's entire army had arrived and confronted the Union forces. It occupied Cemetery Ridge, a line of small hills parallel to that on which the Union army was intrenched. Lee sent General Longstreet with the right wing of the Confederate army to attack General Sickles on the two hills called Round Top and Little Round Top. After a desperate fight Sickles was compelled to retreat, but the main position on the hills was held by the Union forces. At the other end of the line General Ewell attacked the Federal position on Culp's Hill, which was held by General Slocum. Ewell was successful in capturing Culp's Hill and spent the night there, but at daybreak was compelled to retire.

Being thus baffled in both attempts to turn the Federal flanks, Lee decided, on the third day of the battle, July 3d, to make a grand attack at the centre. This operation began with a tremendous artillery duel, which lasted two hours. Then Lee sent Pickett's Division of Longstreet's corps, numbering 15,000 infantrymen, the flower of the Confederate army, squarely at Hancock's position at the centre of the Union lines. It was one of the most splendid spectacles ever seen in an American war. The Confederate troops moved forward as smoothly as though on parade, though the Union cannon mowed them down whole companies at a time. They forced their way across the valley and up the slope of Cemetery Ridge. They forced their way to the very breastworks and sprang upon them to bayonet the Union gunners. It was Lee's supposition that the main body of the Army of the Potomac had not yet arrived, and that behind the breastworks would be found only raw recruits. But the Army of the Potomac was there. It stood firm, and after a struggle unsurpassed in the history of war, the Confederate troops were hurled back in utter defeat. At the same time a furious attempt was made by the Confederate cavalry to get around and attack the Union army in the rear. This was met and baffled by a counter attack of the Union cavalry.

Thus ended this great battle, the greatest the American Continent has seen, and one of the greatest the world has ever known. About 153,000 troops were engaged on both sides, the Union army being slightly the larger. The total losses in killed, wounded and missing were more than 54,000, or considerably more than one-third of all the forces engaged. Lee gathered together the remains of his army and retreated precipitately back into Virginia. Meade's army was too shattered and worn to overtake and capture him. But the fate of the Confederacy was decided. It was evident that no Southern army could ever again hope to invade the North. But the capacity of the South for stubborn resistance was not yet exhausted.

RIOTS IN NEW YORK.

To meet the advance of Lee into Pennsylvania not enough troops could be obtained by the volunteer system, and so a draft was ordered. This measure was generally unpopular. In New York City it gave the criminal classes a pretext for rioting. On July 13th an extensive outbreak occurred, and for four days the city was at the mercy of ruffians

and professional criminals, who had flocked thither from all parts of the country. The situation was rendered worse by the fact that the local militia regiments were absent from the city, having gone to aid the Army of the Potomac in Pennsylvania. The police force performed miracles of valor, but were unable to cope with the mob. Many buildings were burned, jewelry stores and other places of business, as well as innumerable private houses, were broken open and plundered, hundreds of negroes, including women and children, were killed by hanging and burning, and the whole city was a pandemonium of arson, loot and murder. The New York Seventh Regiment and other troops hastened back to the scene and quickly restored order at the cost of the lives of hundreds of the rioters.

CHICKAMAUGA.

The great victories of the Union armies at Gettysburg and Vicksburg were followed in September by a disastrous defeat. This occurred in Tennessee. General Rosecrans compelled the Confederate general, Bragg, to evacuate Chattanooga. Lee then sent Longstreet to assist Bragg, and thus reinforced, Bragg attacked Rosecrans at Chickamauga on September 19th and 20th. In this great battle about 125,000 men were engaged, and nearly 40,000 were killed or wounded. The right wing of the Union army was driven from the field, but the left wing, commanded by the illustrious General Thomas, stubbornly held its ground and saved the Union army from utter rout. Thomas' defence of his position at Chickamauga was the most noteworthy performance of the kind in the whole war, and has probably never been surpassed in the history of the world.

A few weeks later Rosecrans was removed from the command of the Army of the Cumberland, and was succeeded by General Thomas. Sherman also came up from Vicksburg with the Army of the Tennessee and joined him. Grant was put in supreme command of these armies and of all the Union forces west of the Allegheny Mountains. Hooker was also sent thither from Virginia with reinforcements. In November a great battle occurred, or rather series of battles, around Chattanooga, including the famous battle "above the clouds" on Lookout Mountain. These operations were directed by the four greatest generals of the Union army, Grant, Thomas, Sherman and Sheridan. The Confederates under General Bragg were completely defeated.

GRANT IN VIRGINIA.

In the spring of 1864 General Grant was made Lieutenant-General, a rank which had previously been held in the United States by only Washington and Scott. He was also made Commander-in-Chief of the entire Union army. He made his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, which remained under General Meade, and began a campaign in Virginia, not to capture Richmond, but to crush General Lee. He advanced squarely against Lee on the road from Fredericksburg to Richmond, and during May and June, 1864, fought the fearful battles of The Wilderness, Spottsylvania and Cold Harbor. In these engagements he lost a total of 64,000 men. Lee's losses were scarcely as large, but were really more serious, since the South had a far smaller population upon which to draw for reinforcements. From Cold Harbor Grant advanced to Petersburg, near Richmond. This was one of the most strongly fortified places in all Virginia, and there Grant was held at bay by Lee until the spring of the next year.

WINCHESTER.

Meantime Lee sent General Early up the Shenandoah Valley to menace Washington. He hoped thus to frighten the Union Government into recalling Grant's army for the defence of that city. In this he was disappointed. General Sheridan was sent to the Shenandoah to deal with Early. On October 19th, while Sheridan was at Winchester, on his way back from a visit to Washington, Early suddenly attacked Sheridan's army at Cedar Creek, twenty miles away. The Union army was utterly routed and driven back more than seven miles. Sheridan, aroused by the sound of distant cannon, mounted his horse and galloped hastily all the way from Winchester until he met his retreating army. His arrival inspired the troops with fresh courage. They rallied, turned back, and in turn put Early to rout, resting that night in the very camp from which they had been driven in the morning.

SHERMAN'S MARCH.

While Grant thus came east to Virginia, Sherman started south from Chattanooga. Bragg had been superseded in the command of the Confederate army by General Johnston, a much abler man. Johnston was, however, compelled to retreat before Sherman's superior force. The

battles of Resaca, Dallas and Kenesaw Mountain were fought in succession, with total losses of more than 35,000 men. Then Sherman reached Atlanta, Georgia. Johnston was now superseded by Hood, who made two desperate attempts to fight his way out of Atlanta. It was in vain. On September 2d Sherman captured Atlanta. Hood was driven out and retreated into central Tennessee, hoping Sherman would follow him thither and relieve Georgia from invasion. But Sherman did not do so. He sent a part of his army back under General Thomas to deal with Hood, and for himself continued his operations in Georgia. About the middle of November Sherman set out from Atlanta with an army of 60,000 men. His destination was unknown, and for a time was a puzzle to both South and North. He reached the sea coast of Savannah and captured that city just before Christmas. From Atlanta to Savannah he had swept clear of all supplies a belt of country sixty miles in width.

THOMAS IN TENNESSEE.

General Thomas meantime marched up into Tennessee to deal with Hood. The first battle was fought at Franklin, Tennessee, on November 30th, between Schofield and Hood. It resulted in the repulse of Hood, with heavy losses on both sides. Then Thomas came up with his force and met Hood at Nashville on December 15th. A great battle was fought, lasting two days. More than 100,000 men were engaged, and the losses were heavy on both sides. Hood's losses were more than 15,000 men, and his army was utterly defeated and scattered.

NAVAL OPERATIONS.

Some naval operations must now be briefly noted. Among all the Confederate privateers fitted out in England the most famous was the "Alabama," commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes. This famous vessel cruised about the world destroying hundreds of American vessels and millions of dollars' worth of property. She was at last trapped in the harbor of Cherbourg, France, by the United States ship "Kearsarge," commanded by Captain Winslow. A naval duel was fought between them just outside of Cherbourg harbor, with the result that the "Alabama" was destroyed. Captain Semmes escaped to England.

An attack was made upon the Confederate forts and fleet in Mobile Bay by a Union fleet under the command of Admiral Farragut. This was

probably the largest and most fiercely contested naval battle of the war. The Confederates employed submarine torpedoes and a number of heavy ironclad rams. Farragut, standing in the rigging of his flagship, the "Hartford," directed the Union attack and won a complete victory.

END OF THE WAR.

On capturing Savannah, Sherman turned northward and marched through South and North Carolina to join Grant and end the war. At Goldsborough he again encountered General Johnston and defeated him on March 19th. Lee strove to effect a junction with Johnston, abandoning Richmond to its fate. Sheridan prevented this in the battle of Five Forks on April 1st. The next day the Confederates were forced to abandon Petersburg. Then the Confederate Government fled from Richmond, and Lee was cornered at Appomatox Court House. There, on April 9, 1865, he surrendered the remnant of his army to General Grant. Two weeks later Johnston surrendered to Sherman. On May 10th Jefferson Davis was captured in Georgia. A few minor operations closed the war.

ASSASSINATION OF LINCOLN.

The great rejoicings of the nation at the fall of Richmond and the surrender of Lee were quickly turned into mourning. On the evening of April 14th President Lincoln was assassinated as he sat in a theatre in Washington, by John Wilkes Booth, an actor, of strong Confederate sympathies, and died early the next morning. At the same time efforts were made to assassinate Secretary Seward and other members of the Government, but these were, happily, unsuccessful. Booth was soon hunted down by United States soldiers and shot while resisting arrest.

PRESIDENT JOHNSON.

Lincoln had been re-elected President in November, 1864, and had begun his second term on March 4, 1865. The Vice-President chosen with him was Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, who now became President of the United States. President Johnson, unfortunately, lacked Lincoln's rare tact and discretion, and soon came into direct conflict with the Republican majority in Congress. He was anxious to restore State Governments in the South as rapidly as possible. Congress insisted, however, upon delay. A thirteenth amendment to the Constitution was

adopted, forever abolishing slavery, the new State of Nevada being admitted to the Union largely for the sake of securing its vote for that amendment. A fourteenth amendment was proposed, the effect of which would be to deprive any State of a share of its representation in Congress proportionate to the share of the negro vote which was suppressed by the State Government. At the same time a civil rights bill was adopted by Congress guaranteeing negroes the rights of citizenship. Under such conditions all the Southern States except Virginia, Mississippi and Texas were "reconstructed" and re-admitted to the Union. The new State of Nebraska was also organized and admitted.

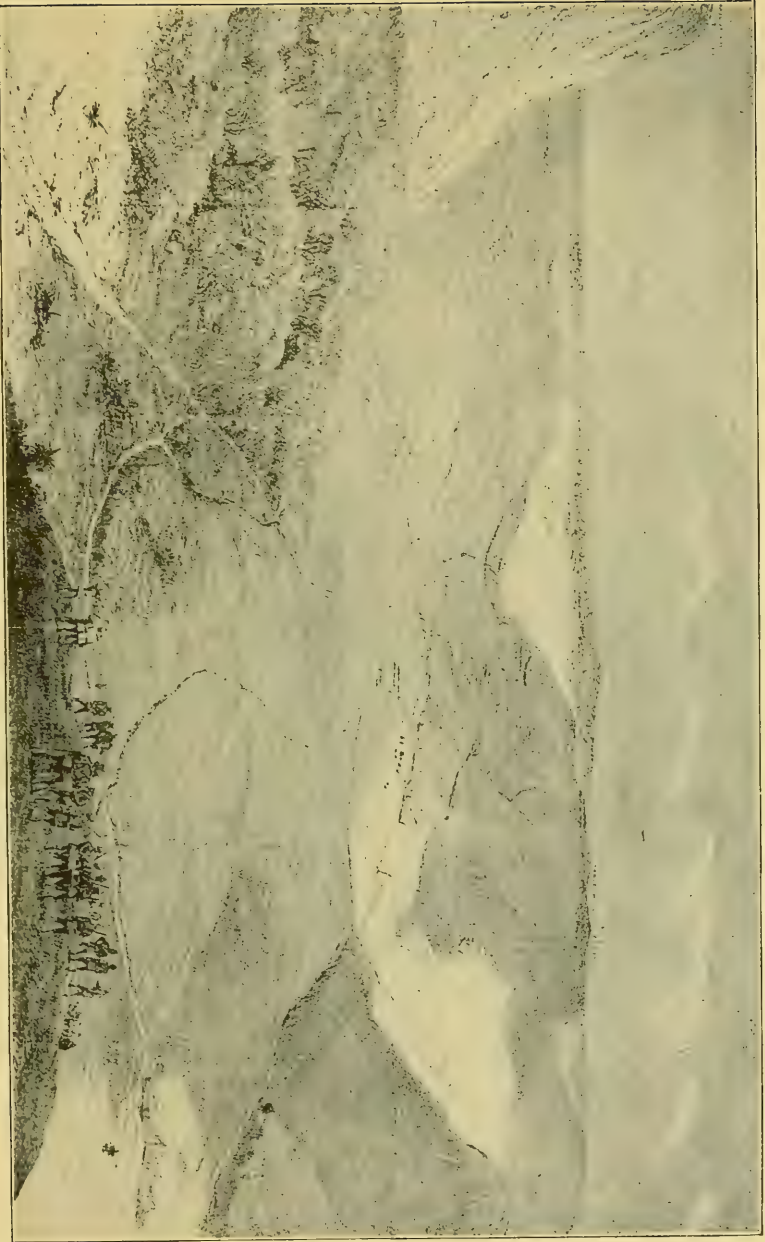
IMPEACHMENT.

President Johnson opposed all these acts of Congress, but they were passed over his veto. Finally an act was passed forbidding him to remove any Federal officer from his place without the consent of the Senate. President Johnson defied and violated this law by undertaking to remove Mr. Stanton, the Secretary of War. Thereupon the House of Representatives impeached him before the Senate for high crimes and misdemeanors. He was brought to trial before the Senate, the Chief Justice of the United States, Salmon P. Chase, presiding. A two-thirds vote was necessary for his conviction. The vote was taken on May 16, 1868, and it stood 35 for conviction and 19 for acquittal. He was therefore saved from impeachment by one vote. Seven of those who voted for acquittal were Republicans.

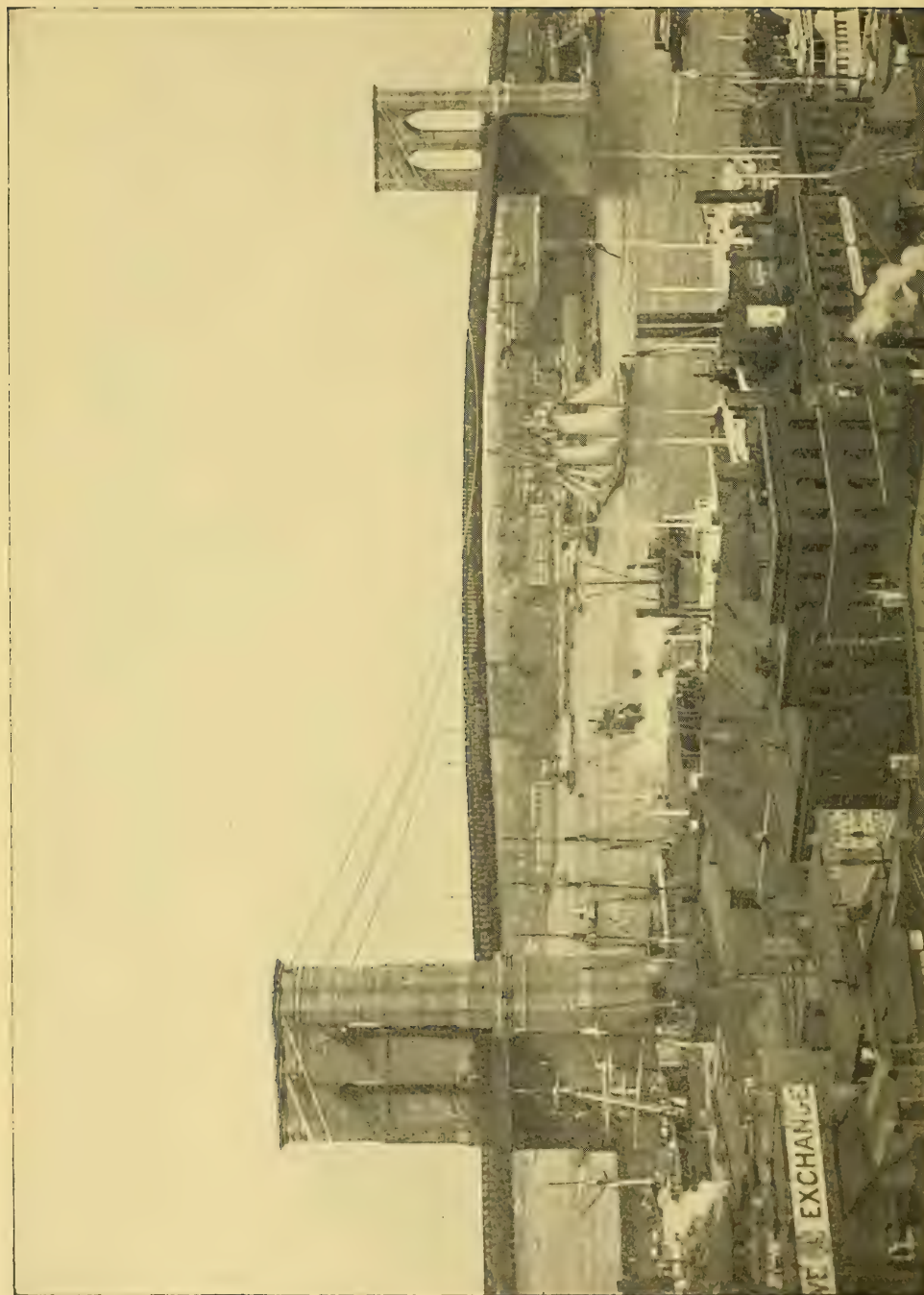
The fourteenth amendment to the constitution, already referred to, was adopted, and so was a fifteenth, providing that no discrimination should be made against citizens on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

In October, 1867, the United States Government purchased from Russia the vast territory of Alaska for the sum of \$7,000,000. This enterprise, for which Secretary Seward was responsible, was ridiculed at the time as a waste of money in purchasing a frozen wilderness. Subsequent developments have shown it to have been a wise and profitable act of statesmanship.

In the fall of 1868 General U. S. Grant was elected President of the United States by an overwhelming majority against Horatio Seymour, his democratic opponent.



1881—LAINGS NEK AND MAJUWA HILL—SCENE OF COLLEY'S REPULSE



1883—COMPLETION OF THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE

CHAPTER XXXV.

Death of Prince Albert—Second Schleswig-Holstein War—The Prusso-Austrian Invasion—Prussia Takes the Lead—The Prusso-Austrian War—End of the War and Terms of Peace—Austro-Hungarian Reorganization—The Rise of Italy—Garibaldi—Maximilian's Short-Lived Empire—Revolution in Spain—The Poles Finally Crushed—The Greek Revolution—Turkey—The Taipings—Cochin-China.

THE era beginning with 1861 was a momentous one in Europe. It opened sadly for England, the death of Prince Albert, husband of Queen Victoria, occurring at the end of 1861, and the civil war in the United States having a disastrous effect upon English trade and industry. In 1865-7 England was greatly and tragically disturbed by the Fenian conspiracies, which, originating in Ireland, extended into England and Canada, and caused an armed invasion of the latter colony by a band of desperadoes from the United States. In 1864 work was begun on the organization of the Dominion of Canada, and in 1867 it was completed, and the various provinces were welded into a nation. The Ionian Islands, which had long been under British protection and administration, were transferred to Greek sovereignty in 1864. In 1867-8 occurred the British war with Abyssinia, in which a British army under Sir Robert Napier, afterward Lord Napier of Magdala, invaded Abyssinia, stormed the capital, Magdala, liberated Englishmen from prison, and deposed the king without the loss of a single man.

SECOND SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN WAR.

Conspicuous among the great events of these years was the reopening of the Schleswig-Holstein question, which was Otto von Bismarck's first step toward the aggrandizement of Prussia and the creation of the new German Empire.

The treaty of London (1852) had guaranteed the unity of the Danish monarchy and promised the succession to Christian of Glücksburg, but

it had failed to satisfy the national aspirations of the duchies. The German Confederation, or Bund, which had never accepted the London treaty, was involved in constant disputes with Denmark about the details of the constitution which Frederick VII had issued in 1855. A strong Danish party in Copenhagen exerted its influence over the king to prevent any concessions being made to Germany, and at last, in 1863, the Bund determined to send an "army of execution" into the duchies. But Denmark was encouraged to resist by the marriage of Christian of Glücksburg's daughter, Alexandra, with the Prince of Wales (March 10, 1863), which seemed likely to secure the support of England.

At this critical moment Frederick VII died, and Christian of Glücksburg ascended the throne as Christian IX. But Frederick of Augustenburg seized the opportunity to revive the claim to the duchies which his father had been compelled to renounce after the treaty of London. He could rely upon the sympathy of the Bund and the enthusiastic support of the Holsteiners. In December, 1863, the army of the Bund entered Holstein and occupied the duchy without any opposition from the Danes. The Duke of Augustenburg was proclaimed king as Frederick VIII, though he left the administration to the commissioners of the Bund.

THE PRUSSO-AUSTRIAN INVASION.

But matters were unexpectedly complicated by the intervention of Austria and Prussia. The two powers had been partners to the treaty of London, and could not therefore adopt the same attitude as the Bund, but they were determined to have a decisive voice in the settlement of a question which was so vitally important to Germany. The Prussian ministry had been headed since 1862 by Bismarck, who exercised a sort of fascination over the Austrian minister Rechberg. Germany was astounded to see the two rival States acting in apparently complete concord. Regardless of the protests of England, the combined armies marched through Holstein to Schleswig, which they determined to occupy as a hostage until Christian IX should agree to a satisfactory settlement. The Danes had not defended Holstein, which was legally a member of the Bund, but they were resolved to hold out in Schleswig, which had no such connection with Germany, and which contained a large Danish population. But the superiority of the invading forces was too overwhelming. The Danes had to retire from their boasted fortification, the Dannewirke

(February 6th), their obstinate defence of Duppel proved unavailing, and Fredericia surrendered (April 28th).

An armistice was now concluded while negotiations were carried on in a conference at London presided over by Lord John Russell. The Bund demanded the complete severance of the duchies from Denmark, under the Duke of Augustenburg. Austria and Prussia, on the other hand, were willing to allow the "personal union" under the Danish crown to continue on condition that the duchies should receive a separate constitution. England, which had hitherto adhered firmly to the treaty of London, at last admitted that concessions must be made to Germany, and proposed a division of Schleswig into a Danish and a German half, but no agreement could be come to about the dividing line, and the negotiations were broken off. The Austro-Prussian army renewed the war and occupied the whole peninsula of Jutland.

Christian IX, unable to resist any longer and bitterly disappointed at the failure of English support, concluded the treaty of Vienna (October 30, 1864). No stipulation was made as to the future fate of the duchies, which were simply ceded to Austria and Prussia, and the king pledged himself to accept any arrangement that might commend itself to the two powers. The troops of the Bund evacuated Holstein in December, and the Duke of Augustenburg discovered that his chances of the succession were as remote as ever.

PRUSSIA TAKES THE LEAD.

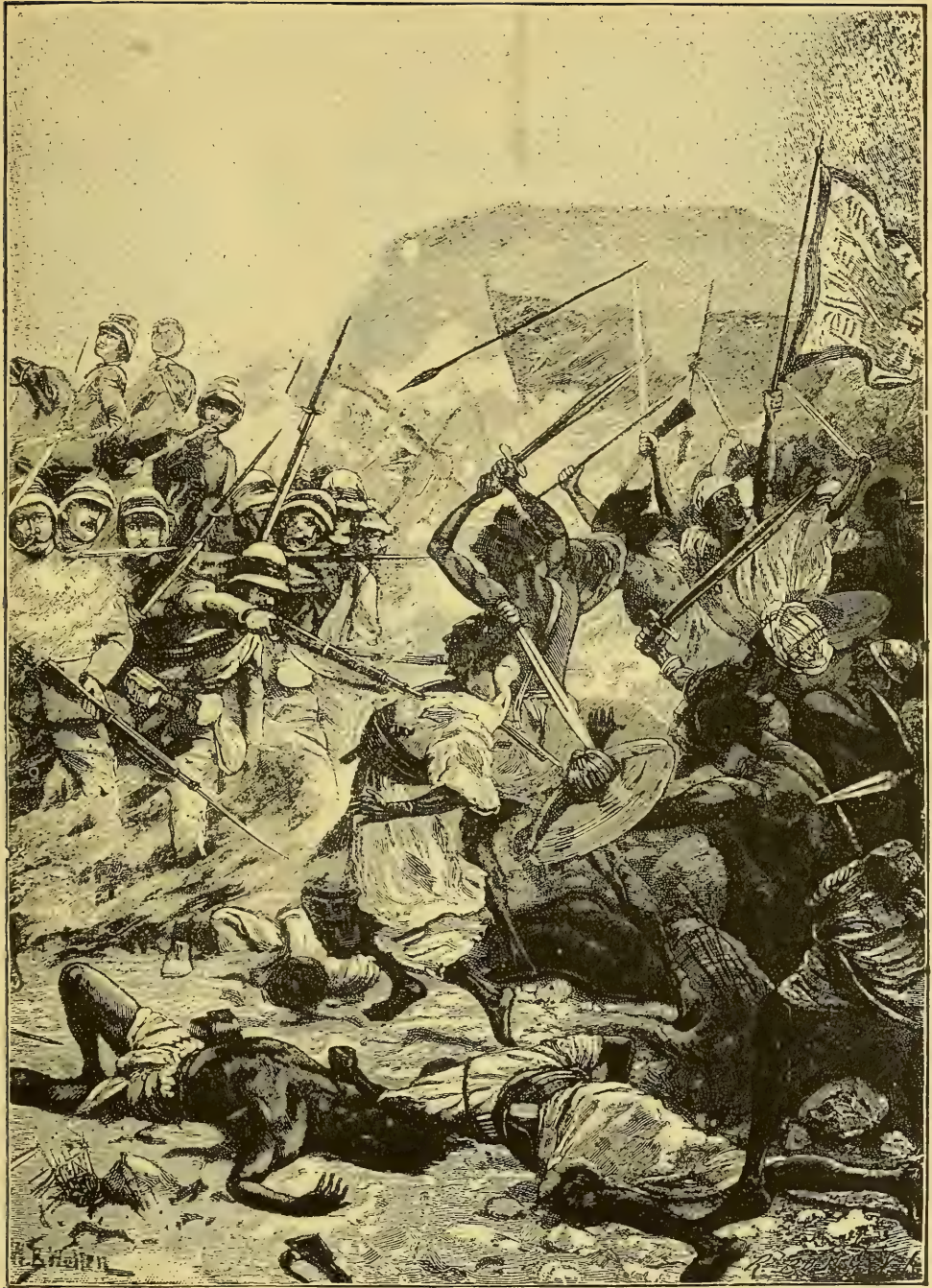
It was evident that the relations of Olmutz had been reversed, and that in the recent transactions Prussia had led and Austria had followed. Bismarck was determined to maintain this position and to utilize the ceded duchies in the interests of Prussia. Ever since his accession to power he had set himself to increase the military resources of his country, and had not hesitated to avow his conviction that "blood and iron" would prove more effective instruments in the settlement of German difficulties than the speeches and votes which had failed so lamentably in 1849. He was encouraged in his aggressive attitude by the domestic troubles of Austria. Hungary and Venetia were on the verge of revolt, and all the non-German provinces were discontented. To conciliate them, the government suspended the constitution of 1861 and restored the old system of provincial diets. But this measure alienated the

German population of Austria proper and failed to satisfy the Slavs, Magyars and Italians. Under these circumstances it was difficult for Austria to oppose a resolute opposition to the designs of Prussia. The lesser German States tried in vain to obtain a voice in the final settlement of the duchies. Some supported the Duke of Augustenburg, others proposed that the choice of a ruler should be submitted to the free choice of the inhabitants. Bismarck received all these suggestions with contemptuous silence, and continued to treat the matter as a private affair of the two great powers.

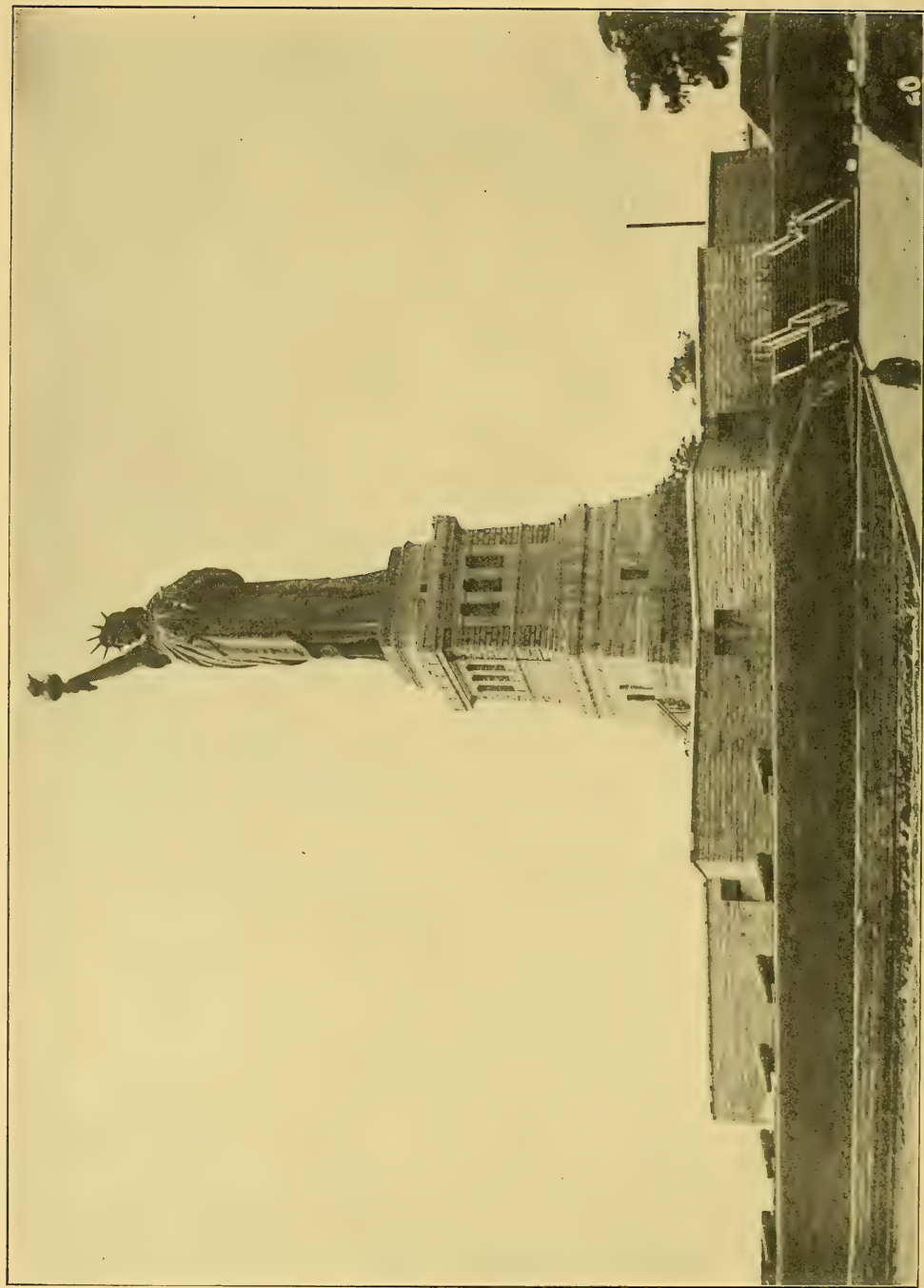
At Gastein a convention was made (August 14, 1865), by which Austria undertook to administer Holstein, and Prussia Schleswig, while the small duchy of Lauenburg was sold to Prussia for 2,500,000 Danish thalers. The port of Kiel was occupied by Prussia, which at once commenced the erection of fortifications. The convention of Gastein was Bismarck's revenge for the humiliation of Prussia at Olmutz. But it was evident that the arrangement could only be temporary, and that the relations of the two powers in the duchies and in Germany could only be settled by war. On June 1, Austria announced that the question of Schleswig-Holstein should be submitted to the Bundestag, and that a meeting of the estates of Holstein should be summoned to declare the wishes of that province. Ten days later a formal accusation was brought against Prussia of violating the convention of Gastein, and the mobilization of the troops of the Bund was demanded. Bismarck responded by bringing forward his proposal for a new constitution of the Bund, which was to be divided into a northern federation under Prussia and a southern under Bavaria, while Austria was to be excluded altogether. Manteuffel was ordered to occupy Holstein if the estates met, and he obeyed the order on June 8th. The Austrian troops were too weak to resist, and the duchy was annexed to Schleswig under Prussian rule.

THE PRUSSO-AUSTRIAN WAR.

On June 14, the Bundestag, by nine votes to six, accepted the Austrian demand for the mobilization of the troops. The Prussian representative at once declared that this resolution was a breach of the constitution of 1815, pronounced the dissolution of the Bund, and quitted the assembly. War was declared against Saxony, Hanover and Hesse-Cassel, which had supported Austria.



1884—GEN. GORDON ON THE ROAD TO KHARTOUM



1886—BARTHOLDI'S "STATUE OF LIBERTY" ERECTED IN NEW YORK HARBOR

The general expectation in Europe was that the war, which broke out on June 15, would be a long and desperate struggle, in which the superior resources of Austria would secure an ultimate victory. But these anticipations were completely falsified by the event. The Prussian troops were better organized than any others in Europe, and they were armed with the needle-gun, which enabled them to fire four or five times as fast as their opponents. On the other hand, Austria was in a hopeless financial position, its armies were composed of various nationalities, it had to send more than 150,000 men to defend Venetia against the Italians, and it had no general to be compared with the Prussian commander-in-chief, Von Moltke. In every engagement the Prussians gained conspicuous successes. Hesse-Cassel and Saxony were occupied without opposition. The Hanoverian army, after being defeated at Langensalza, was compelled to capitulate (June 29). It was in Bohemia that the main armies of Austria and Prussia came into collision. After a series of smaller engagements the great battle was fought on July 3 at Sadowa (or Koniggratz), where the Austrians were completely defeated.

END OF THE WAR AND TERMS OF PEACE.

On July 26 an armistice was concluded at Nikolsburg, by which Austria agreed to withdraw from the Bund, to renounce all claims in Schleswig and Holstein, to recognize the new constitution which Prussia was to arrange for Germany, and to cede Venetia to Italy. On August 23 the preliminaries of Nikolsburg were confirmed by the peace of Prague, and Prussia undertook to restore the kingdom of Saxony, and to transfer northern Schleswig to Denmark, if the inhabitants expressed a wish for such a transfer. The latter provision was wholly evaded, and though the former was fulfilled, it was on such hard conditions that Saxony became little more than a vassal State of Prussia. The two provinces which had been occupied, Hanover and Hesse-Cassel, together with Schleswig-Holstein, Nassau, and Frankfort, were to remain in the possession of Prussia.

Prussia now set to work to draw up the plan of a North German Confederation, to include all States to the north of the Main. Saxony, the only powerful State, was unable, in existing circumstances, to make any opposition. The scheme was first elaborated in a conference of plenipotentiaries of the various governments, and was then submitted to

an assembly chosen by universal suffrage, which sat in Berlin from February 24 to April 17, 1867. The executive government was entrusted to the Prussian King as hereditary President and General of the Confederation. He was to be assisted by a Federal Council (Bundesrath), which was to be presided over by a Chancellor appointed by Prussia. Legislation was to be in the hands of a Reichstag, the deputies to which were to be chosen by direct suffrage. Contributions to the common military expenditure were to be regulated by the number of soldiers which each State supplied for the federal army. Military service was organized on the Prussian system, and was made compulsory on every citizen over seventeen years of age. Bismarck was appointed to be the first Chancellor of the Confederation. With the chief States of southern Germany, Prussia was connected by the Zollverein, and special treaties were concluded with Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden, by which their territories were guaranteed, and their armies were placed at the disposal of Prussia in case of war. Thus the whole of Germany, with the exception of Austria, became practically subject to Prussian sovereignty.

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN RE-ORGANIZATION.

Austria had been taught by the disasters of the war to realize how fatal to the Empire were the discontent and disunion of the subject populations. Venetia was resigned almost with cheerfulness, and a serious effort was made to pacify Hungary. The work of conciliation was carried out by Count Beust, who had recently been Minister to Saxony, but had been compelled to quit that kingdom by the enmity of Prussia. The government found it necessary to restore the old system of dualism. Hungary received a Ministry and a Diet of its own, while another Diet and Ministry were created for the Provinces west of the Leitha. Joint delegations were to be appointed by the two Diets for the consideration of imperial business, and there were to be three common Ministers, for finance, war, and foreign affairs. This constitution, with improvements in detail, has been preserved to the present day.

THE RISE OF ITALY.

In Italy the Seven Weeks' War had produced important results. Before the outbreak of hostilities Austria had attempted to buy off Italian hostility by offering the cession of Venetia, but Victor Emanuel

had preferred to adhere to his treaty with Prussia. As soon as the war began in Germany the Italian forces advanced towards the Quadrilateral. They were divided into two armies, one of which, under Cialdini, was to cross the Po at Ferrara, and to cut the line of communication between Venice and Verona, while the other, under the King and La Marmora, was to invest the fortresses. The plan of the campaign was based on the belief that the Austrians would stand on the defensive, and all calculations were upset when the Archduke Albert quitted his position and attacked the Italians. At Custozza an obstinate battle was fought (June 24th), and after twelve hours' fighting the Italian army was forced to retire to the Mincio. In July the Italian fleet was almost destroyed by the Austrians in the Adriatic, near the Island of Lissa. Before an opportunity was offered of retrieving these mortifying disasters the news came that the German war had been terminated at Nikolsburg, and that Venetia was offered for the acceptance of Italy.

It was a great blow to Italian pride to have to receive the coveted province at the hands of an ally instead of winning it by the prowess of the national arms. But Victor Emanuel realized that it was not the time for excessive punctiliousness, and accepted the cession of Venetia by the treaty of Vienna (October 3d). The usual plebiscite was almost unanimous in favor of annexation, and in November the King was received with enthusiasm in Venice. Austria now possessed no territory that could be called Italian except Trieste and the small district of the Trentino. It was just at this time that the evacuation of Rome by the French was completed in accordance with the terms of the September Convention. The great work of freeing Italy from the foreigners seemed for the moment to be accomplished. But one grievance still remained, the independent rule of the Pope in Rome and the Patrimony, and this was protected by the agreement with France. The Ministry of Rattazzi believed that Rome could be obtained in the same way as Cavour had obtained the Two Sicilies.

GARIBALDI.

Garibaldi, the Liberator of Italy, had sought, in 1862, to set Rome free from the rule of the Pope. He led an expedition against that city, which met with some success. But he was finally vanquished by the French garrison of Rome at Aspromonte, and was taken prisoner. He was quickly liberated, however, in deference to universal sentiment, and

was sent to live on his island-farm of Caprera. There he remained until 1867, when he left Caprera and led another expedition against Rome. He met with victory at Monte Rotondo, but Napoleon III at once despatched a new body of French troops to defend the city which had just been evacuated. At Mentana (November 3, 1867) Garibaldi's raw levies were utterly routed by the French, and the occupation of Rome was resumed for an indefinite period.

MAXIMILIAN'S SHORT-LIVED EMPIRE.

In no country was the result of the Austro-Prussian War such an unwelcome surprise as in France. Napoleon III was humiliated at this time by events in Mexico. In 1861 France, England and Spain had agreed to send a joint expedition to demand satisfaction for injuries inflicted on their subjects by Juarez, the head of the Mexican Republic. The two latter powers withdrew their forces when the object of the treaty had been attained. But the French Emperor conceived the chimerical project of forming a grand empire of the Latin race in Mexico, which should counterbalance the power of the United States. He ordered his troops to conquer Mexico, which was achieved in 1863, and he offered the sovereignty to the Austrian Archduke, Maximilian, who accepted it in 1864. But Maximilian quarreled with the French commander, Bazaine; the United States threatened to make war on the new empire, and Napoleon found the expense of the occupation a serious embarrassment. In 1866 the French troops were withdrawn, and the result was that the Archduke was shot by Mexican rebels in the next year. Napoleon III now endeavored to form a close alliance with Austria, and in August, 1867, he paid a formal visit to the Emperor, Francis Joseph, at Salzburg. The visit was nominally one of condolence on the fate of the Archduke, Maximilian, but contemporary opinion persisted in attributing to it a political importance which it may not have possessed. No important results followed the interview, but it was certain that France would seize the first opportunity to measure its strength against the Northern State which had made such a sudden stride towards the leadership in Europe.

REVOLUTION IN SPAIN.

It would be tedious to narrate in detail the domestic history of Spain under Isabella of Bourbon. The Queen sought to cloak the dissolute-

ness of her private life by a superstitious devotion to religion and the church, and her personal sympathies were on the side of the clerical and reactionary party. But occasionally the progresistas and moderados forced themselves into office, though their jealous rivalry prevented them from maintaining the power to which their numbers entitled them. At last, in 1866, Isabella was induced to take energetic measures against the opposition. Narvaez was appointed Chief Minister, and the most prominent liberals, O'Donnell, Serrano and Prim, sought safety in exile. The Cortes was dissolved, and many of the Deputies, including the President, Rosas, were transported to the Canary Islands. A royalist reign of terror was established in Spain, and was continued after the death of Narvaez (April 1868) by his successor, Gonzalez Bravo. But the Spaniards were completely alienated from the Bourbon rule. They resented the scandals of the Court and the despotism of the contemptible *camarilla* of priests and courtiers who surrounded the Queen. The various sections of the Liberal party were driven into union by their common danger. In September, 1868, Prim and Serrano returned to Spain, raised the standard of revolt, and offered the people the bribe of universal suffrage. The revolution was promptly effected, and Isabella fled to France.

THE POLES FINALLY CRUSHED.

The liberal policy of the new Czar seems to have excited great hopes among the Poles, and their disappointment gave rise to a formidable insurrection in 1863. For two years a desperate guerilla warfare was carried on against the Russian troops, but in the end order and discipline carried the day against ill-organized heroism. Prussia, which had never sympathized with the Poles, made an alliance with the Czar. England, Austria and France sought to mediate on behalf of the unfortunate nation, and to secure for Poland some of the liberties that had been promised in 1815. But they did not attempt to go beyond paper remonstrances, which Russia treated with contempt. The rebellion was put down with a hideous barbarity that was disgraceful to a state which had just professed such solicitude for its own peasants. It was determined to obliterate the last remnants of Polish nationality. The country was divided into ten provinces; the Russian language was introduced in the schools, and in all public acts; the University of Warsaw was Russianized, the Roman Catholic religion became a luxury which only the

rich could afford ; and to punish the nobles for their sympathy with the insurrection, their lands were arbitrarily handed over to the peasants.

THE GREEK REVOLUTION.

The Kingdom of Greece had never thriven as its most ardent admirers had expected. This was due partly to the defects of the Greeks themselves, partly to the errors of King Otho and his Bavarian advisers, but mainly to the attitude of the great powers. Neither Russia nor England really wished Greece to become a powerful State. Russia dreaded a possible rival in the headship of the Greek Church, and England feared for her commercial supremacy in the Levant. Hence the defective frontier which was given to the new kingdom, and the constant snubs that it received from the European States. Otho, who was only 17 years old when the crown was given to him, had assumed the personal control of the government in 1837. Possessed of no ability, experience or energy, but eager to exercise an absolute authority for which he was unfitted, he had alienated his subjects before they had acquired the habits of loyalty. A revolution in 1843 compelled him to dismiss his Bavarian followers and to grant a constitution. When the Crimean war broke out, the Greeks eagerly seized the opportunity to attempt the annexation of Thessaly and Epirus. The King offered no opposition to the national movement, which was probably prompted by Russian influence. Regardless that by a breach of the treaties the support of England and France would be forfeited, the government openly took part in the war, which had already been commenced by an insurrection in the two provinces. The Turks had no difficulty in repulsing the invaders, whose rapacity and disorder did much to conciliate the inhabitants to Turkish rule. In May, 1854, English and French troops landed at the Piræus and compelled the King to abandon the Russian alliance. From this time the Bavarian monarchy forfeited all hold upon the respect or affection of Greece.

The Italian war of 1859 evoked the warmest sympathy among the Greeks, while Otho and his court did not disguise their attachment to Austria. To put down the growing opposition, the King endeavored to tamper with the constitution. Newspapers were suppressed, intimidation and corruption were employed to influence the elections, and the Senate was packed with royal nominees. In 1862 a rebellion broke out

while the King and Queen were on a tour through the country. On returning to Athens they found the city closed against them, and quitted Greece under the protection of the English flag. Otho, who never abandoned his pretensions to the throne, died at Bamberg in 1867. Meanwhile a provisional government was established, and a national assembly was summoned to elect a new king and to frame a new constitution. The assembly refused to take the responsibility of the election, and entrusted it to a national vote. By an overwhelming majority the crown was offered to the English Prince Alfred (the Duke of Edinburgh). But the great powers had agreed that no member of the ruling families of France, Russia or Great Britain should ascend the throne of Greece, and the election was annulled. England now undertook to find a constitutional king, but discovered that the vacant throne was not an object of ambition to European princes. At last Prince William George of Denmark, the second son of Christian IX, and brother of the Princess of Wales, was selected, and was acknowledged by the Greeks as George I. In order to conciliate the Greeks to their new sovereign, England resigned the Ionian Islands to Greece in 1864.

TURKEY.

In Turkey, Abdul Medjid died in 1861, and was succeeded by Abdul Aziz. The promises which the Sultan had made in the treaty of Paris shared the fate of most Turkish promises. The fact was that the despotism of the Sultan no longer existed except in name. Turkey was practically ruled by an official oligarchy, and the personal will of the nominal ruler counted for very little when it clashed with the interests of the dominant class. A series of revolts in the Christian provinces attested the continuance of Turkish oppression and of the discontent which it could hardly fail to provoke. The most important of these revolts before 1875 was that of Crete (1866-1868), which was almost openly countenanced by the Greek government. Diplomatic relations between Constantinople and Athens were broken off, and war would probably have ensued if the European powers had not stepped in to compel Greece to observe a strict neutrality. The insurrection was put down in 1868 mainly by the exertions of Hobart Pasha, an English naval officer who had entered the Turkish service, and Crete, with some nominal concessions, returned to its former servitude.

THE TAIPINGS.

The great Taiping rebellion in China, which had long been in progress, which had cost millions of lives, and had threatened the existence of the Tartar dynasty, was finally brought to an end in 1864 through the genius of the illustrious Charles Gordon, who took command of the mob-like Chinese forces and marshalled them into the "Ever Victorious Army."

Two years later a peaceful revolution was effected in Japan by the abolition of the Shogunate and the assumption by the Mikado of actual as well as nominal authority.

COCHIN CHINA.

The French aggressions in Annam, or Cochin China, which had begun in the preceding century, were renewed in 1862, when three provinces of Cochin China were ceded to France by the Emperor of Annam. In 1867 two more provinces were thus ceded, and it became evident that the whole Annamese Empire was destined to become a French possession.

Russia, meanwhile, was busy with her conquests in Central Asia, establishing in 1868 her rule over Samarkand and Bokhara.

The year 1866 was marked in Europe by a revolution in Roumania. Prince Couza was expelled, and Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, a relative of the King of Prussia, was chosen in his place. At this time Roumania was erected in a practically independent principality.

A long-continued war between Brazil and Paraguay, or against the Dictator of the latter State, came to an indecisive end in 1867.

CHAPTER XXXVI

Discovery of the Victoria Nile by Speke and Grant—Livingstone's Return—Another Expedition—Interests of Various Lands — Necrology.

THE progress of African exploration led to further researches by Speke and Grant, who had already distinguished themselves in the equatorial regions. In 1862 they discovered and explored for some distance the so-called Victoria Nile. Two years later Sir Samuel Baker filled up another large spot on the map by his discovery of Albert Nyanza, the second of the great lakes of that part of Africa.

The veteran Livingstone was meantime busy extending the sphere of his great work further south. In a former chapter we left him on the River Rovuma. After exploring that stream for 30 miles in his new vessel the "Pioneer," Livingstone and the missionaries proceeded up the Shire to Chibisa. There they found the slave trade rampant, desolating the country and paralyzing all effort. On July 15, 1861, Livingstone, accompanied by several native carriers, started to show the Bishop the country. Several bands of slaves whom they met were liberated, and after seeing the missionary party settled in the highlands of Magomero to the south of Lake Shirwa, Livingstone spent from August to November in exploring Lake Nyassa. While the boat sailed up the west side of the lake to near the north end, the explorer marched along the shore. He returned more resolved than ever to do his utmost to rouse the civilized world to put down the desolating slave-trade. On January 30, 1862, at the Zambesi mouth, Livingstone welcomed his wife and the ladies of the mission, with whom were the sections of the "Lady Nyassa," a river steamer which Livingstone had had built at his own expense, absorbing most of the profits of his book, and for which he never got any allowance. When the mission ladies reached the mouth of the Ruu tributary of the Shire, they were stunned to hear of the death of the Bishop and of

Mr. Burrup. This was a sad blow to Livingstone, seeming to have rendered all his efforts to establish a mission futile. A still greater loss to him was that of his wife at Shupanga, on April 27, 1862.

LIVINGSTONE'S RETURN.

The "Lady Nyassa" was taken to the Rovuma. Up this river Livingstone managed to steam 156 miles, but further progress was arrested by rocks. Returning to Zambesi in the beginning of 1863, he found that the desolation caused by the slave-trade was more horrible and widespread than ever. It was clear that Portuguese officials were themselves at the bottom of the traffic. Kirk and Charles Livingstone being compelled to return to England on account of their health, the Doctor resolved once more to visit the lake, and proceeded some distance up the west side and then north-west as far as the water-shed that separates the Loangwa from the rivers that run into the lake. Meanwhile a letter was received from Earl Russell recalling the expedition by the end of the year. In the end of April 1864 Livingstone reached Zanzibar in the "Lady Nyassa," and on the 30th he set out with nine natives and four Europeans for Bombay, which was reached after an adventurous voyage of a month, and on July 23 Livingstone arrived in England. He was naturally disappointed with the results of this expedition, all its leading objects being thwarted through no blame of his. For the unfortunate disagreements which occurred and for which he was blamed in some quarters, he must be held acquitted, as he was by the authorities at home; though it is not necessary to maintain that Livingstone was exempt from the trying effects on the temper of African fever, or from the intolerance of lukewarmness which belongs to all exceptionally strong natures. Still the results at the time, and especially those of the future, were great. The geographical results, though not in extent to be compared to those of his first and final expeditions, were of high importance, as were those in various departments of science. Details will be found in his "Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries," published in 1865.

ANOTHER EXPEDITION.

By Murchison and his other staunch friends Livingstone was as warmly welcomed as ever. When Murchison proposed to him that he

should go out again, although he seems to have had a desire to spend the remainder of his days at home, the prospect was too tempting to be rejected. He was appointed H. M. consul to central Africa without a salary, and the Government contributed only £500 to the expedition. The chief help came from private friends. During the latter part of the expedition the Government granted him £1000, but that, when he learned of it, was devoted to his great undertaking. The Geographical Society contributed £500. The two main objects of the expedition were the suppression of slavery by means of civilizing influences, and the ascertainment of the water-shed in the region between Nyassa and Tanganyika. At first Livingstone thought the Nile problem had been all but solved by Speke, Baker, and Burton, but the idea grew upon him that the Nile sources must be sought farther south, and his last journey became in the end a forlorn hope in search of the "fountains" of Herodotus. Leaving England in the middle of August 1865, via Bombay, Livingstone arrived at Zanzibar on January 28, 1866. He was landed at the mouth of the Rovuma on March 22, and started for the interior on April 4. His company consisted of thirteen Sepoys, ten Johanna men, nine African boys from Nassick school, Bombay, and four boys from Shire region, besides camels, buffaloes, mules, and donkeys. This imposing outfit soon melted away to four or five boys. Rounding the south end of Lake Nyassa, Livingstone struck in a north-north-west direction for the south end of Lake Tanganyika, over country much of which had not previously been explored. The Loangwa was crossed on December 15, and on Christmas day Livingstone lost his four goats, a loss which he felt very keenly, and the medicine chest was stolen in January 1868. Fever came upon him, and for a time was his almost constant companion; this, with the fearful dysentery and dreadful ulcers and other ailments which subsequently attacked him, and which he had no medicine to counteract, no doubt told fatally on even his iron frame. The Chambeze was crossed on January 28, and the south end of Tanganyika reached March 31. Here, much to his vexation, he got into the company of Arab slave-dealers, by whom his movements were hampered; but he succeeded in reaching Lake Moero. After visiting Lake Mofwa and the Lualaba, which he believed was the upper part of the Nile, he, on July 18, discovered Lake Bangweolo. Proceeding

up the west coast of Tanganyika, he reached Ujiji on March 14, 1869, "a ruckle of bones." Supplies had been forwarded to him at Ujiji, but had been knavishly made away with by those to whose care they had been entrusted.

INTERESTS OF VARIOUS LANDS.

A number of important incidents in the years now under consideration must be touched upon briefly in passing. In 1861 the government of the republic of Santo Domingo was transferred to Spain by Santana, an arrangement which did not last long. In 1862 another great International Exhibition was opened in London, which proved highly successful, despite the disturbance of commerce and industry caused by the civil war in the United States.

In 1864 was formed the International Association of Workingmen, commonly known as the International, and for years dreaded by European Governments as the incarnation of revolutionary ideas and tendencies. It held its first Congress at Geneva in 1866, and adopted the Socialistic rules prepared by Karl Marx.

In the latter year trans-atlantic telegraphy between the United States and Great Britain was successfully and permanently re-established, and since that date has never been interrupted. From time to time since then new cables have been laid, until now there are several between the United States and Great Britain, one between the United States and France, and one, finished in 1900, between the United States and Germany.

Another International Exhibition was held in Paris in 1867, in which the splendor of Louis Napoleon's empire reached its climax.

NECROLOGY.

The death roll included in 1863 Jacob Grimm, the great German philologist and antiquary, and William Makepeace Thackeray, the illustrious English novelist and satirist. The next year saw the deaths of Nathaniel Hawthorne, one of America's best novelists, Meyerbeer, the musician, and Landor, the poet and essayist. Victor Cousin, the French philosopher, and Faraday, the scientist, died in 1867, and Rossini, the composer, and Brougham, the British statesman and man of letters, in 1868.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Ulysses S. Grant becomes President of the United States—Santo Domingo—Treaty of Washington—San Juan Boundary—Grant's Re-election—Indian Troubles—The Centennial State—Financial Troubles—The Disputed Election.

ULYSSES S. GRANT became President of the United States on March 4, 1869, and Schuyler Colfax at the same time became Vice-President. The nation was then at peace and in a highly prosperous condition. The Civil War had, it is true, prostrated the Southern States, but these were now rapidly rising into renewed prosperity. The North, on the other hand, had received a great industrial stimulus. In fact, the chief trouble was too great inflation of business, from which there was danger of a reaction. The population of the United States was now more than 38,000,000, and manufactures had doubled in value since the outbreak of the war.

The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution, prohibiting the States from denying to any citizen the right to vote on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude, was adopted in February, 1869, just before Grant's inauguration, but was not formally proclaimed until March 30th, and thus went into force practically at the same time with the beginning of his administration. This intensified the political trouble in the Southern States, where the "carpet-bag" governments were now in full sway. In some States rival governments were set up, and civil war was prevented only by the maintenance of garrisons of United States troops.

As a protest against Federal interference, the former secessionists at the South, who had now received full amnesty and were entitled to hold office again, organized a secret league known as the Ku Klux Klan. This body, by systematic flogging and murdering of negroes and white Republicans, established a reign of terror in several States, and was enabled to control the elections in accordance with its wishes. When at last this lawless body was suppressed, "tissue ballots" and other forms

of electoral corruption were resorted to to nullify the negro vote and give political power to those who had exercised it before the war. This condition of affairs was maintained all through Grant's administration, and ended in the triumph of the white party. During this administration, too, the last of the seceding States was reconstructed and received back into the Union.

SANTO DOMINGO.

The purchase of Alaska by the preceding administration had aroused the old time American spirit of territorial expansion, and President Grant soon felt its force. The affairs of the island of Santo Domingo had long been in an unsettled state. The republic of Hayti was suffering a negro despotism. The Dominican Republic was no better off. It had been given to Spain, and then restored to independence, but was manifestly unfit for self-government. At the same time it was a valuable country, and its position on the map was one of vast strategic importance, both for commerce and military defence.

Early in his administration President Grant was approached by President Baez, of Dominica, with a proposition for the annexation of the latter country to the United States. President Grant was favorably impressed with the scheme, as were his Cabinet officers. Indeed, the best sentiment of the nation was decidedly in favor of it. A treaty of annexation was therefore negotiated and laid before the Senate for ratification. But there was in the Senate a certain clique of men, of the President's own party, led by Charles Sumner, who were intensely hostile to Grant, largely on personal grounds. They accordingly opposed the treaty, and, after a bitter contest, defeated it. This was the beginning of what ultimately became an open rupture in the Republican party. Later, President Grant negotiated with the Danish Government for the purchase of the three West India Islands belonging to Denmark. The Danish Government was willing to sell, the people of the islands were unanimously in favor of being transferred to the United States, and the islands were recognized to be of great value. But the same influences prevailed in the Senate, and just for the sake of spiting the President the scheme was defeated.

TREATY OF WASHINGTON.

Grant's administration was signalized by one great diplomatic triumph, which resulted in the establishment of international arbitration

as a practical method of settling disputes between nations. The injuries inflicted upon American commerce by the "Alabama" and other Confederate privateers has already been mentioned. Most of the vessels were built or fitted out in England, and the United States Government held that the British Government had thus permitted violations of the neutrality laws, and was therefore to be held accountable for the losses inflicted by the privateers.

After considerable discussion the United States suggested, and the British Government agreed, to submit the whole matter to a court of arbitration. This was done under a treaty signed at Washington on May 8, 1871, and known as the Treaty of Washington.

The international tribunal of arbitration met at Geneva, Switzerland. Both the parties to the suit were represented by the ablest of their counsel, and the case was tried in great detail and with impartial thoroughness. The verdict was announced on September 14, 1872. It was to the effect that the British Government was culpable, and that it must pay the United States \$15,500,000 damages. This verdict was unhesitatingly acquiesced in by both nations. It may be said to have marked an era in diplomacy, for it was the first great example of such settlement of such a dispute. From that example have followed many subsequent cases of arbitration, including the great scheme for a permanent international court formulated at the close of the century.

SAN JUAN BOUNDARY.

At about the same time another dispute between the two countries was also submitted to arbitration. This had to do with the boundary between the United States and the British possessions in North America at the extreme north-west, and involved the possession of certain islands and the control of the entrance to Puget Sound. The case was submitted to the German Emperor as an umpire, and after mature deliberation he, on October 21, 1872, gave his decision in accordance with the American claims. This decision was also accepted as final by both parties.

GRANT'S RE-ELECTION.

The year 1872 saw the culmination of the Republican revolt against President Grant. In that year a secession from that party occurred, under the name of the Liberal Republicans. The latter charged the

Grant administration with corruption, and with an illiberal policy toward the Southern States. It nominated as its candidate for the Presidency Horace Greeley, editor of "The New York Tribune," who had formerly been one of Grant's most earnest supporters. For Vice-President they nominated Frank P. Blair, who was one of the men already mentioned who kept Missouri from seceding from the Union in 1861. The Democrats, realizing the demoralized condition of their party and the impossibility of winning the election by themselves, contented themselves with also nominating Greeley, the man who had always been their bitterest opponent, and whom they had themselves most bitterly opposed. The Republicans renominated Grant by acclamation, with Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, as candidate for Vice-President.

The campaign was one of exceptional intensity and excitement. It resulted in an overwhelming victory for Grant and Wilson. Mr. Greeley broke down his health by his extraordinary labors in the campaign, and died a few weeks after the election, mourned by the whole nation as one of the most illustrious men of his age. President Grant, his successful rival, was conspicuous among the mourners who followed his bier.

INDIAN TROUBLES.

In the fall of 1872 a war broke out with the Modoc Indian tribes, which lasted for some months and cost many lives. The tribe was decimated and its remnant surrendered in 1873.

In 1876 occurred one of the most disastrous Indian wars of recent years. An outbreak by the Sioux, provoked by bad faith on the part of United States officials, led to the sending of General Custer to restore order. Custer was one of the most distinguished cavalry officers in the United States army, and he had with him a large body of veteran troops. They were, however, led into an ambush, and after a desperate conflict were killed to the last man. Other troops were hurried to the scene, and the Sioux were finally subdued.

THE CENTENNIAL STATE.

The Territory of Colorado was found to be rich in mines of gold and silver, as well as in agricultural resources. Its population rapidly increased, and by 1876 it was deemed worthy of Statehood. In that year, accordingly, it was admitted to the Union as a State, and has since



1889—EIFFEL TOWER—WORLD'S FAIR, PARIS



BEETHOVEN



FELIX MENDELSSOHN



WAGNER



MASCAGNI



JOHN PHILIP SOUSA



FRANZ LISZT



CHAIKOVSKI

been known as the Centennial State, since it was admitted just a hundred years after the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

FINANCIAL TROUBLES.

The year 1873 was marked by widespread financial troubles throughout the world, and especially in the United States. They were here caused by a reaction from the inflation of business at the close of the war, and also by the unsettled state of the national currency. One of the greatest panics on record swept over the land, and for years thereafter business suffered serious depression. These circumstances seriously affected the course of political events in the closing years of Grant's term.

Nor was the Administration free from political scandals, though the President himself was doubtless free from all blame. One of these was in connection with the administration of Indian affairs, it being found that the Federal Indian agents were largely guilty of gross frauds upon both the Government and the Indians. Another was known as the Credit Mobilier case, and concerned the connection of Federal officials and members of Congress with a corporation of that name chartered to promote the building of the Pacific railroad. It appeared that some members of Congress had accepted gifts of stock, intended as bribes to influence their action in legislation. Again, in March, 1873, Congress raised the salary of the President from \$25,000 to \$50,000, and the salaries of many other public officers, including all Senators and Representatives in Congress. The increase in Congressional salaries was made to date back two years. This scandalous performance was known as the "salary grab," and it was regarded with so much popular odium that the next year the act was repealed and all salaries were reduced to their former figure except that of the President. In 1872 a combination of distillers was formed in St. Louis for the purpose of defrauding the Government of internal revenue taxes on whiskey. This "whiskey ring," as it was called, was exposed in 1875 and some Government officials were found to be involved in it. More than two hundred persons were indicted as a result of the vigorous prosecution which President Grant ordered.

THE DISPUTED ELECTION.

The Presidential election of 1876 was the most memorable in the history of the country. The Republican candidates for President and

Vice-President were Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York. The Democratic candidates were Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. After an exciting campaign the result was found to be in doubt. The election turned upon the votes of South Carolina, Florida and Louisiana. In those States there were rival Governments and rival returning boards, and so conflicting sets of returns were forwarded to Washington. Beyond doubt there was much corruption on both sides, and the full truth of the situation will never be known. For months the land was convulsed with excitement, and there would have been serious danger of civil war had a man less firm and less wise than Grant been in the Presidential chair.

After long deliberations, Congress—of which the Senate was Republican and the House of Representatives Democratic—decided to submit the disputed returns to an electoral commission, composed of five Senators, five Representatives, and five Justices of the Supreme Court. The Senators chosen were Republicans, the Representatives were Democrats, and the Justices were supposed to be impartial in politics. It was found, however, that on all decisive issues three of the Justices voted with the Republican Senators, and two with the Democratic Representatives. This division gave the Republicans eight and the Democrats seven votes in the commission. Accordingly Hayes and Wheeler were declared to have been elected, and they were duly inducted into office. This settlement of the case was acquiesced in by the Democrats, but the justice of it was never entirely conceded.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Irish Church Disestablished—Irish Land Act—Revolution in Spain—French Quarrel with Prussia—Beginning of the War—German Conquest of France—The French Republic—Siege of Paris—Surrender—Terms of Peace—The Commune—Strength of the Republic—The German Empire—Conference on the Black Sea—British Affairs—Gladstone and Disraeli—Ashantee War—Empress of India—The Suez Canal Shares—Occupation of Rome—King Amadeus—Germany and the Vatican—Emancipation in Brazil.

SCARCELY had the British Parliament reassembled, in 1868, when the Earl of Derby retired through ill-health, and was succeeded in the Premiership by Mr. Disraeli. Amidst the excitement of a new and fierce conflict on the proposal made by Mr. Gladstone for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the measures of reform were completed (at least for the present) by the passing of Reform Bills for Scotland and Ireland, and an act for the better trial of controverted elections. The last Parliament elected under the Reform Act of 1832 was dissolved on November 11, 1868.

IRISH CHURCH DISESTABLISHED.

The elections in November were virtually an appeal to the people on the question of the disestablishment of the Irish Church; and the result was so decisive that Mr. Disraeli resigned without waiting for the meeting of Parliament (December 2d), and Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister (December 9th). In the Eighth Parliament of Queen Victoria (the twentieth of the United Kingdom), which met next day, the Ministry had a majority of more than one hundred. In July, 1869, the connection between the churches of England and Ireland was dissolved. The latter was disestablished and disendowed. Its temporalities were vested in three commissioners, with reservation of existing interests. A large sum

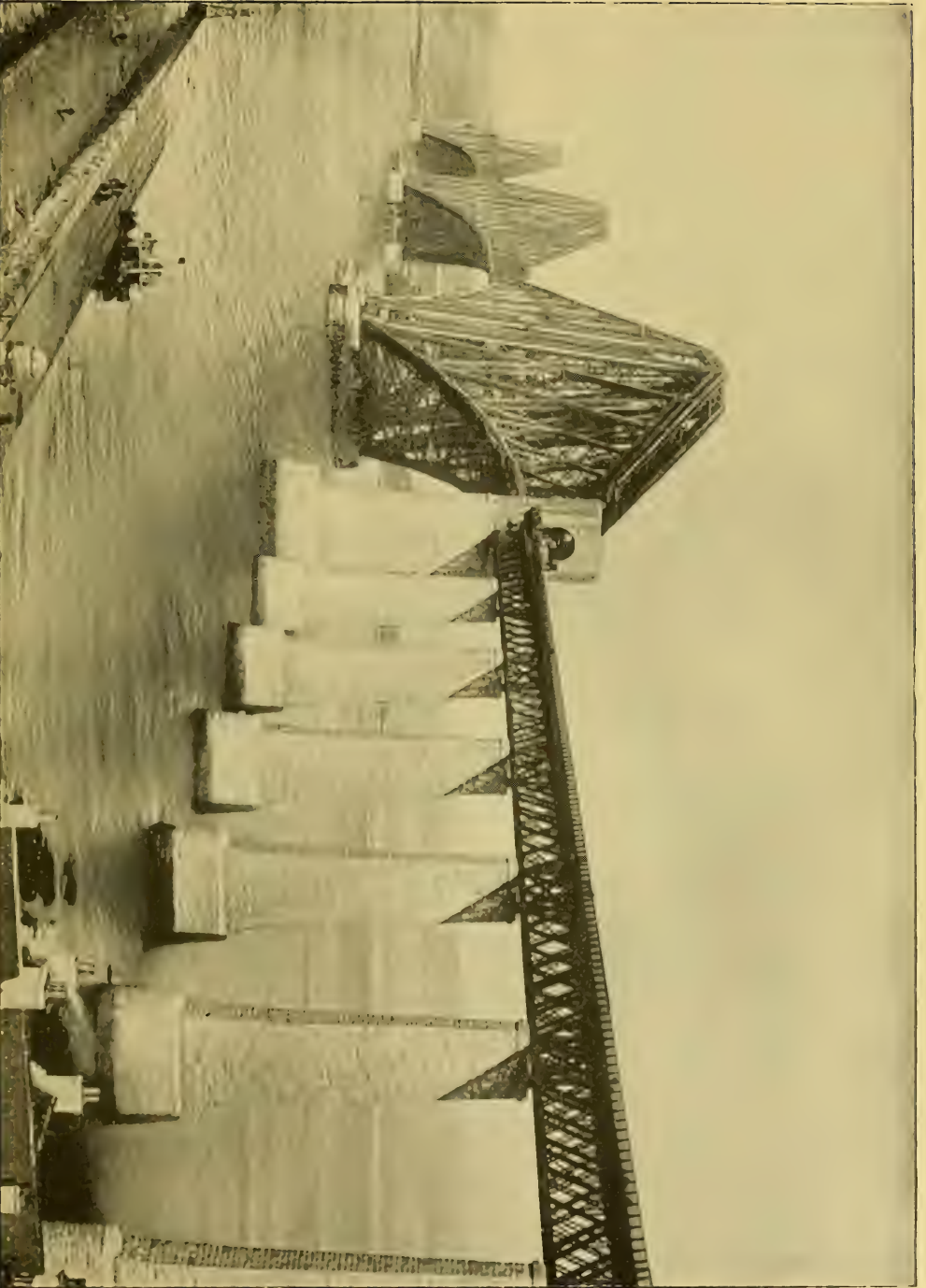
was granted to the Roman Catholic College of Maynooth, and to such of the Protestant dissenters as were recipients of the royal grant called *regium donum*. In the same session imprisonment for debt (except as a means of enforcing the judgments of county courts) was abolished in the United Kingdom, and three years later in Ireland.

IRISH LAND ACT.

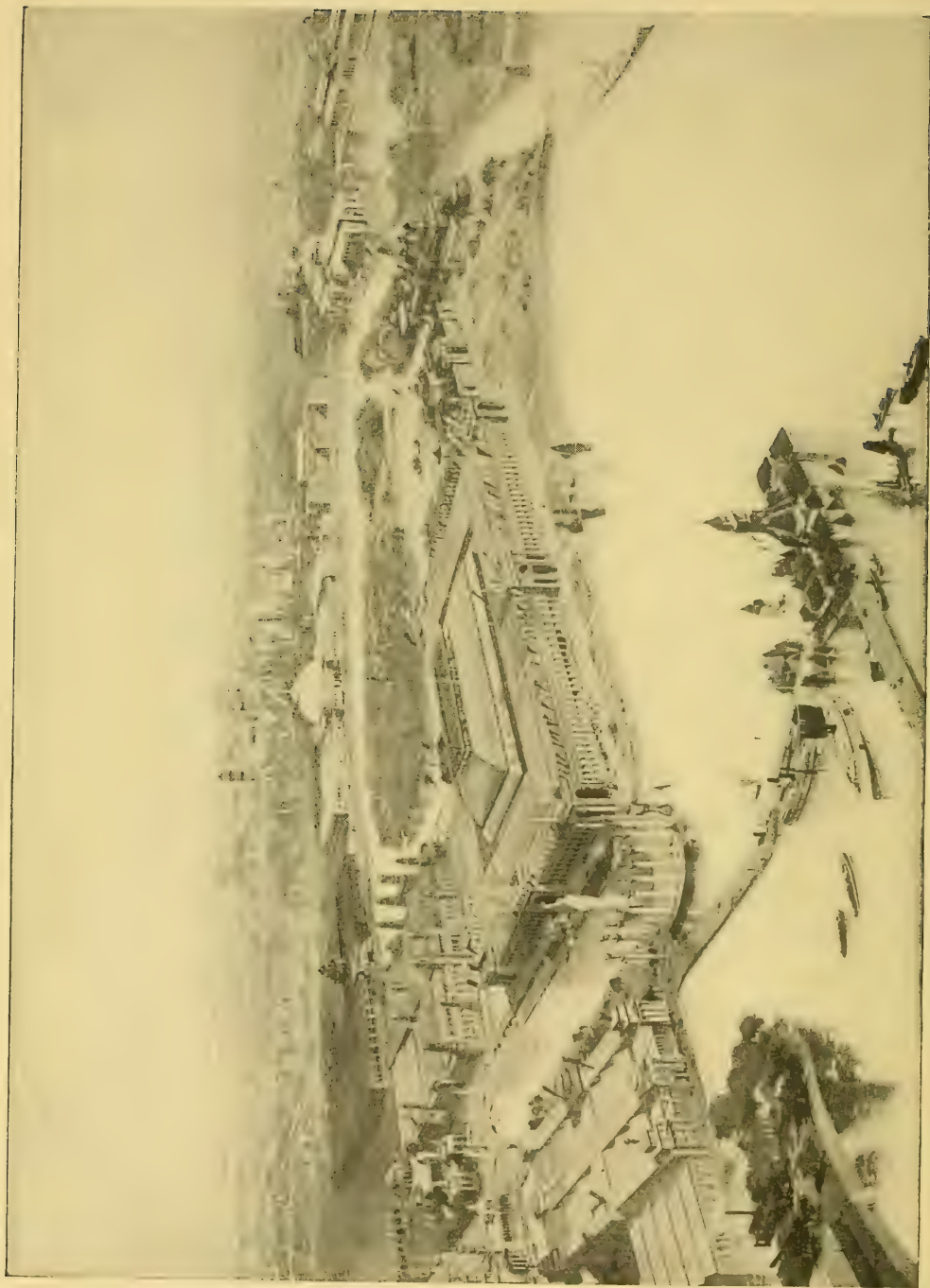
In 1870 Mr. Gladstone took the second step in his Irish policy by the Land Act, which provided for the compensation of outgoing tenants, and for loans to landlords for improvements, and to tenants desiring to purchase their holdings. Courts of arbitration were established for the settlement of all claims; and the freedom of contract between landlord and tenant was so far limited as to nullify all agreements in contravention of the purpose of the act. The same session is memorable for establishing a system of national education in England by means of elective school boards. In these schools all religious creeds were forbidden. A similar measure passed for Scotland in 1872. The year before all religious tests for degrees and offices (except those of an ecclesiastical nature) in the English Universities had been abolished.

REVOLUTION IN SPAIN.

In a former chapter we left Spain in the midst of a revolutionary era. Queen Isabella II had been expelled. But the leaders of the movement were not republicans, and they at once looked round for a Prince to fill the vacant throne. There were three Bourbon candidates, Alfonso, Isabella's son; the Duke of Montpensier, husband of the Queen's sister; and Don Carlos, the representative of the legal claims of the male line. But no one of them was acceptable to the people or to their leaders, and it was necessary to seek a foreign ruler. Serrano was appointed Regent during the interregnum, and Prim undertook the office of Minister of War. The Cortes drew up a new constitution, by which a hereditary king was to rule in conjunction with a Senate and a popular chamber. The "Iberian" party wished to unite the whole peninsula by the election of the King of Portugal, but he refused to entertain the proposal. At last it was decided to offer the crown to Leopold, of Hohen-zollern-Sigmaringen, belonging to a distant branch of the royal family of Prussia. The Prince expressed his personal willingness to accept the



1890—COMPLETION OF THE FORTH BRIDGE, SCOTLAND



1893—BIRDSEYE VIEW OF THE WORLD'S FAIR, CHICAGO

offer, but, as a Prussian subject, he demanded and obtained the approval of William I.

FRENCH QUARREL WITH PRUSSIA.

The Prince of Hohenzollern was connected with the Bonaparte family, as his father had married Antoinette Murat, and it was hoped that his candidature would therefore be acceptable to the French Emperor. But Napoleon III represented the whole affair as an intrigue of Bismarck to extend the authority of Prussia in Europe. To satisfy him the Prince withdrew his acceptance of the Spanish crown (July 12th). But Napoleon and the Ollivier Ministry were convinced that a war was the only means of reviving the waning attachment of the people of the empire. A *plebiscite* in 1869 had approved a new constitution, but the increased number of negative votes had been very significant. They were encouraged by the belief that the States of southern Germany were jealous of Prussian ascendancy, and would welcome the prospect of recovering their independence. The French Envoy, Benedetti, was instructed to demand a promise from the Prussian King that, if Spain again pressed the Hohenzollern candidate, he would interpose his authority to prohibit it. William I courteously but firmly refused to give any such pledge. On July 19th France declared war against Prussia, and the streets of Paris resounded with the cries of *a Berlin!* For the moment the empire seemed to be stronger and more popular than at any time since its establishment.

BEGINNING OF THE WAR.

All the hopes that had been based upon German disunion were speedily disappointed. The North German Confederation placed the whole of its forces at the disposal of Prussia, and voted one hundred and twenty million thalers for the expenses of the war; the Southern States hastened to fulfill the obligations imposed by the treaties of 1867. More than 440,000 men were placed in the field under the nominal command of the King, but the real direction of Von Moltke. The Crown Prince, Prince Frederick Charles, and Steinmetz, were the chief leaders of divisions. The command of the French army was assumed by Napoleon in person, his chief marshals being Leboeuf, Bazaine, MacMahon and Canrobert. The regency in Paris was entrusted to the Empress Eugenie.

The first action was fought at Saarbruck (August 3d), where the young Prince Imperial underwent his "baptism of fire."

GERMAN CONQUEST OF FRANCE.

From this moment events marched with a rapidity that astounded Europe. In every engagement the Germans showed an immense superiority in everything but personal bravery. The French fought with conspicuous courage, but they had to contend against superior arms and superior generalship. They were the first in the field and ought to have taken the aggressive. Their delay allowed the Germans to enter Alsace, and to carry on the war on French soil. MacMahon was defeated at Wissemburg (August 3d), and again at Worth (August 6th). General Frossard was driven from the heights of Spicheren by the army of Frederick Charles and Steinmetz (August 6th). The main force of the French was now concentrated near Metz under Bazaine, while MacMahon, who had been wounded at Worth, retreated to Chalons. At Gravelotte a bloody and decisive victory was gained by the Germans (August 18th), and Bazaine shut himself up in Metz. Frederick Charles was entrusted with the blockade of the fortress, while the rest of the German army under the Crown Prince advanced upon Paris. MacMahon was now ordered by the Emperor to march from Chalons to relieve Metz. At Sedan the French were completely defeated (September 1st), and on the next day the whole army capitulated. Napoleon himself became a prisoner and was sent to Wilhelmshohe, in Cassel.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

The news of these crushing disasters overthrew the French Empire. The Empress Eugenie fled to England; a "Government of national defence" was formed by the Deputies of Paris, and the Republic was formally proclaimed (September 4th). A Ministry was appointed, of which the leading spirits were Jules Favre, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Gambetta, Minister of the Interior. The Senate was abolished, and the Corps Legislatif was dissolved. The defence of the capital was left in the hands of General Trochu, who had been appointed by the regent before her flight. M. Thiers, who had no Republican sympathies, and who had refused a place in the Provisional Government, undertook an in-

formal embassy to the European sovereigns to request their mediation on behalf of France.

SIEGE OF PARIS.

Meanwhile the advance of the Germans continued. On September 20th Paris was invested ; on the 28th Strasburg surrendered ; and finally, on October 28th Bazaine capitulated at Metz, and 150,000 French troops, including three marshals, 50 generals and nearly 6000 officers became prisoners of war. Gambetta, who had escaped from Paris in a balloon, organized the "army of the Loire," which carried on a desperate but hopeless resistance to the invaders. Paris held out with obstinate courage, though the inhabitants were compelled to feed on vermin to escape starvation. To add to the general distress, the Communists organized an *emeute* under Flourens, Blanqui, etc., which almost succeeded in overthrowing the government, but was ultimately put down by the national guard. In the provinces the Germans carried all before them in a number of local engagements. Garibaldi offered his services and came as far as Besancon, but it was too late to effect anything. Gambetta's army of the Loire was practically destroyed. The only place besides the capital which held out was the fortress of Belfort in Alsace.

SURRENDER.

At last the condition of Paris made it imperative to come to terms, and the preliminaries of a peace were arranged by Bismarck and Jules Favre at Versailles. An armistice was concluded for three weeks, and all military operations were to cease except those in the Jura and the siege of Belfort ; a National Assembly was to meet at Bordeaux to settle the terms of peace. The forts of Paris were to be placed in the hands of the Germans, but they were to be excluded from the city ; the garrison was to surrender as prisoners of war, except 12,000 men, who were left to maintain order ; the blockade was to continue, but measures were arranged for supplying food to the citizens. The capitulation raised a feeling of bitter indignation in the provinces, and Gambetta announced his determination to continue the war in defiance of the armistice. But Jules Simon was dispatched to Bordeaux to prohibit this useless quixotism, and Gambetta in disgust resigned his place in the Ministry. The Assembly met at Bordeaux on February 12th and elected M. Thiers as "head of the Executive Government of the French Republic."

TERMS OF PEACE.

The veteran politician, whose services to his country in the moment of disaster outweighed any errors of his previous career, at once undertook the difficult task of securing the best possible terms from Bismarck. The preliminaries were signed on February 26th. France ceded the whole of Alsace except Belfort (which had surrendered on February 16th), and the greater part of Lorraine, including the fortresses of Metz and Thionville. The indemnity was fixed at five milliards of francs, to be paid within three years. The German army of occupation was to be withdrawn gradually as each instalment of the indemnity was paid, and while it remained, was to be supported at the expense of France. The National Assembly accepted the terms by 546 votes to 107, and the final treaty of Frankfort was signed on May 10, 1871.

THE COMMUNE.

The third French Republic was not established without a desperate struggle against a worse foe than Germany. Scarcely had Paris emerged, stricken and worn, from the German siege than the mob of the streets arose against the government of M. Thiers and proclaimed a Commune, based on the principles of the Reign of Terror of 1793. The Archbishop and other priests were murdered in cold blood, churches and public buildings were wantonly destroyed, and anarchy prevailed. The Republican Government had to conduct a regular siege to regain possession of the city, their own seat of Government meanwhile being at Versailles. At last the Commune was suppressed at a fearful cost, and the leaders of it put to death or sent into exile, from which they were not permitted to return for many years.

STRENGTH OF THE REPUBLIC.

The third French Republic was established at a period of national humiliation unparalleled since the fifteenth century, but it has achieved greater permanence than either of its predecessors. Napoleon III took up his residence at Chiselhurst, where he died in January, 1873. The death of his unfortunate son, the Prince Imperial, in South Africa (June 1, 1879) seems to have rendered hopeless any project of another Bonapartist restoration. The Royalist party also suffered from the discord between the elder Bourbons and the house of Orleans. To these causes

and the popular desire for rest, the Republic has undoubtedly owed much of its strength. The first President, Mr. Thiers, held office until May 24, 1873, when a hostile vote of the Assembly led to his resignation, and he was replaced by Marshal MacMahon. In 1875 a new Republican constitution was drawn up which created two chambers, an elective Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. As the President showed an inclination to a reactionary policy, the Republicans formed a strong opposition. In 1878 MacMahon resigned, and M. Jules Grevy was chosen as his successor.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

In Germany the result of the war was to give a great impulse toward the establishment of unity under Prussian headship. The work which the Parliament of Frankfort had failed to carry out in the revolutionary period was easily accomplished at the time when Germans were fighting side by side for a common fatherland. Bismarck was enabled to sweep away the unnatural line of the Main and to extend the Confederation of 1867 over the four States of Southern Germany. The terms of union were settled in separate negotiations with the Governments of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden and Grand-ducal Hesse. They were then submitted for formal approval to the estates of each province and to the Diet of the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, the veteran King of Prussia was formally proclaimed German Emperor in the great Hall of Mirrors at Versailles. Bismarck, the Cavour of Germany, was appointed Imperial Chancellor.

CONFERENCE ON THE BLACK SEA.

Another consequence of the war was that Russia, supported by Prince Bismarck, denounced the clause of the treaty of 1856, which forbade her keeping a fleet in the Black Sea. A conference of the great powers at London, while releasing Russia from that engagement, placed on record, as an essential principle of the law of nations, that no power can liberate itself from the engagements of a treaty, nor modify its stipulations, without the consent of the contracting parties (January, 1871).

BRITISH AFFAIRS.

On February 27, 1872, a service of public thanksgiving was celebrated at St. Paul's, attended by the Queen and royal family, for the

recovery of the Prince of Wales from a dangerous illness, in December, 1871. The sympathy expressed by all classes on this occasion was so decided a proof in favor of hereditary monarchy, that it served as a timely check on some rash exhibitions of theoretical republicanism. The secret ballot in parliamentary elections, so long advocated by the Radical party, was adopted in the same year.

GLADSTONE AND DISRAELI.

On the reassembling of Parliament in 1873 Mr. Gladstone introduced his Irish University Bill; but it failed to conciliate the Catholics, and was defeated by 287 to 284 on the second reading (March 11th). The Gladstone Ministry resigned; but they returned to office on the 20th, as Mr. Disraeli declined to undertake the government with the existing House of Commons. The attempt at Irish university reform was not renewed; but religious tests were abolished in Trinity College, Dublin (May). The great act of the session was the constitution of a Supreme Court of Judicature, which came into effect (with some subsequent alterations) on November 1, 1875. On that date the ancient Courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, as well as those of Chancery, of Admiralty, of Probate and Divorce, and the ecclesiastical Court of Arches, ceased to exist as separate tribunals, but their names were retained as those of divisions of the Supreme Court. One of the chief objects had in view in this alteration was the fusion of the principles of law and equity.

ASHANTEE WAR.

In the autumn of 1873 Great Britain was engaged in a war with the Ashantees in West Africa, in consequence of misunderstandings resulting from the sale to England of the Dutch colonies on the Gold Coast. Under the skillful conduct of Sir Garnet Wolseley, the King of Ashantee was defeated, and his capital Coomassie, taken and burned, and he accepted peace, consenting to abolish human sacrifices (February 11, 1874).

During this session the Ministry was greatly weakened, and there were manifest proofs of a conservative reaction. On January 23, 1874, Mr. Gladstone suddenly decided on dissolving Parliament; but the elections, under the joint operation of the late Reform Act and vote by ballot,

gave the Conservatives a great majority. Following Mr. Disraeli's example in 1868, Mr. Gladstone's Ministry resigned without waiting to meet Parliament (February 17th); and Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister a second time. His government included the Marquis of Salisbury and the Earl of Carnarvon, who had separated from him on the reform question in 1867; the Earl of Derby was again Foreign Secretary, and Sir Stafford Northcote (a financial disciple of Mr. Gladstone) Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Queen's Ninth Parliament met on March 5th, and the most important measure of the session was the act for the regulation of public worship, which provided simpler means of bringing disputes on ritual observances to a judicial decision. The duties on sugar were abolished. By this time it was apparent that the country desired a rest from organic changes, and the ensuing year was mainly occupied with measures of legal, social and sanitary improvements. In September, 1874, the annexation of the Fiji Islands, by the desire of the inhabitants, secured a station in the Pacific of great importance for communication with Australia and New Zealand.

EMPRESS OF INDIA.

Early in 1875 Mr. Gladstone retired from the leadership of the Liberal party and was succeeded by the Marquis of Hartington. At the close of the year the Prince of Wales set out on a visit to India. At Calcutta he held a chapter of the Order of the Star of India (January 1, 1876), which was numerously attended by the native princes and their suites in the gorgeous equipage of their several provinces. On the 11th he visited Delhi; and after a tour in Her Majesty's Indian dominions, with a splendor and popularity such as had never fallen to the lot of a European prince, he returned to Bombay (March 11th) and embarked for England. In the meantime Lord Northbrook had resigned the office of Governor-General, and was succeeded by Lord Lytton, son of the famous novelist (April 12th).

In commemoration of the Prince's visit, and as a sign of the imperial relation of the British power to all India, Parliament gave the Queen authority to assume the title of Empress of India, which was proclaimed in London on April 28, 1876, and in India, with great solemnities, on January 1, 1877.

THE SUEZ CANAL SHARES.

In November, 1875, Mr. Disraeli had proposed to purchase the Khedive's share of the Suez Canal, at the price of four millions, and the proposal was unanimously sanctioned by the House of Commons (February 21, 1876). At the close of this session Mr. Disraeli, who was seventy-one years of age, and had borne for thirty years the strain of leading his party in the Commons, was removed to the House of Lords, with the title of Earl of Beaconsfield.

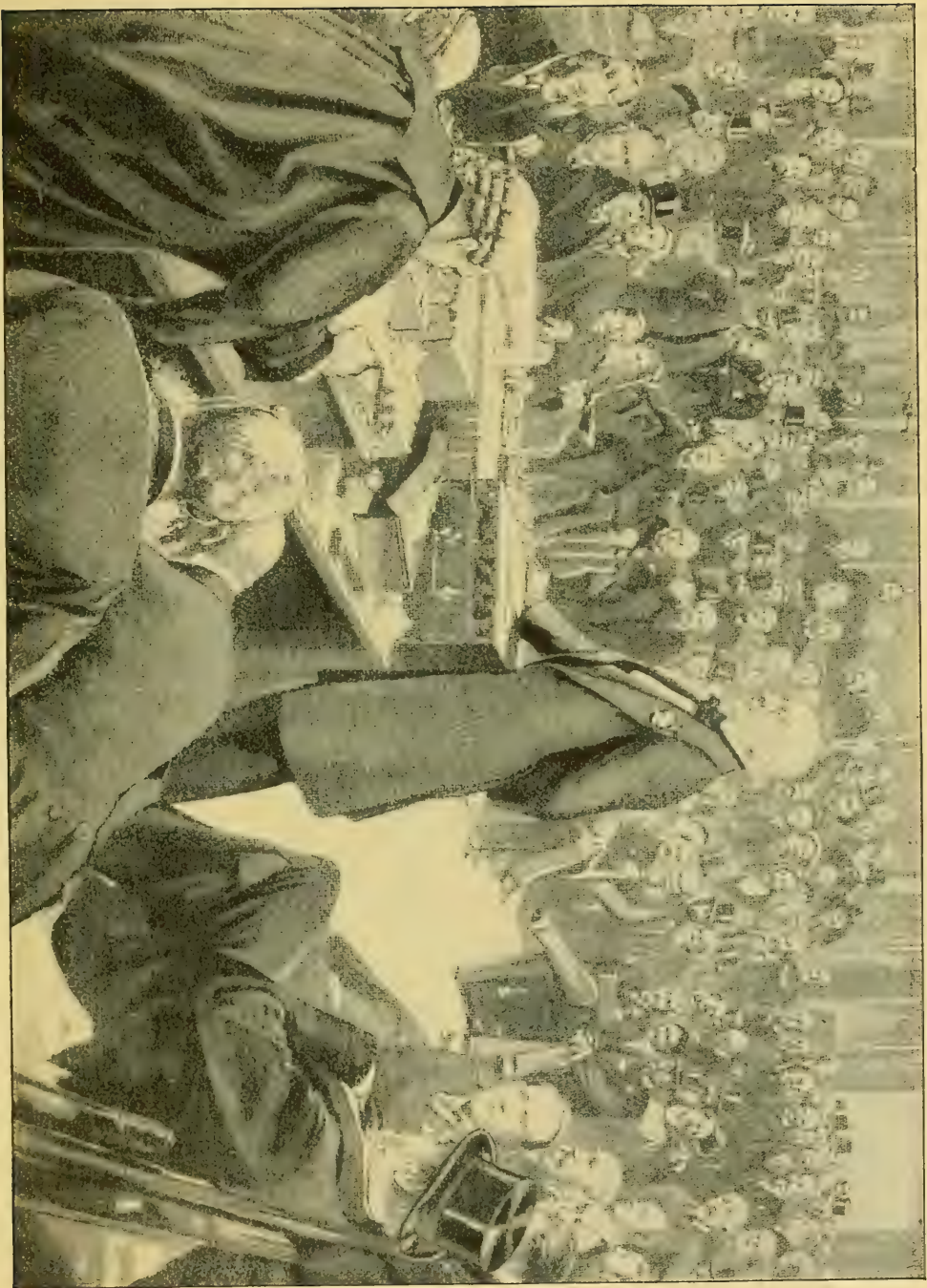
WAR IN THE BALKANS.

Meanwhile the attention of the nation had been drawn to the misgovernment of Turkey, and the atrocities perpetrated under its feeble and inefficient rule, by Count Andrassy's note, presented to the Porte (January 31, 1876), by the Austrian, Russian and German Ambassadors. The Turkish Sultan, Abdul Aziz, was deposed (May 30th), and committed suicide five days after. He was succeeded by Murad V. But the change of rulers produced no alteration in the sentiments of Europe. The odium into which the Turkish Government had fallen was an encouragement for the neighboring and dependent provinces to rebel. On July 1st and 2d the Servians and Montenegrins declared war and crossed the Turkish frontier. On August 31st Murad was deposed, and Abdul Hamid II was proclaimed Sultan.

During the recess popular indignation was stirred to the uttermost by the Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria. The war with Servia still continued, in spite of the friendly intervention of the great European powers, until the Servians were totally defeated and Djunis captured by the Turks (October 19th-24th).

RUSSIA MAKES WAR ON TURKEY.

The embarrassment of Turkey was the opportunity of Russia, which now interfered, ostensibly in behalf of the Christian subjects living under the Sultan. The Marquis of Salisbury was appointed by Her Majesty as her special ambassador to attend a conference of the great powers at Constantinople in order to settle the Eastern question. The conference commenced December 23d, but its proposals were rejected by the Porte, and it concluded its sittings January 20, 1877. As the last hope of averting war between Russia and Turkey the six great European powers



1893—GLADSTONE INTRODUCING THE IRISH HOME RULE BILL IN PARLIAMENT



1895—LOUIS PASTEUR IN HIS LABORATORY

signed a protocol at London asserting the necessity of reforms and providing for mutual disarmament on certain conditions (March 31st). On the determination of the Porte to listen to no such proposals (April 12th), Russia declared war (April 24th), while the other great powers determined to observe a strict neutrality.

OCCUPATION OF ROME.

The first reverses at Weissemburg and Worth in 1870 had been followed by the hasty recall of the French troops from Rome, and the city was offered to the Italian Government as the price of armed assistance to France. But Victor Emanuel had already declared the neutrality of Italy. It would have been imprudent to join what was evidently a losing cause, and the link between Italy and France had been broken at Mentana. On September 11th, ten days after the capitulation of Sedan, Italian troops crossed the frontier of the Papal States. Pius IX had held an ecumenical council in the previous year to decree the dogma of Papal infallibility, and had thus decided a dispute that had remained unsolved since the famous assemblies of Constance and Basel. Such a man was not likely to resign his temporal power of his own accord. All suggestions of a peaceful compromise were met with the invariable answer of *non possumus*. On September 18th the bombardment of Rome commenced, and two days later the city was occupied. A plebiscite declared for annexation to the Italian kingdom by an overwhelming majority, and the next year the capital was transferred from Florence to the Eternal City.

No protest was made against this natural completion of the Italian State. Victor Emanuel carried out the policy of Cavour, left the Pope in undisturbed possession of the Vatican, and ostentatiously proclaimed the complete independence of his ecclesiastical authority. It was a great blow to the King to be involved in hostile relations to the head of his church, but he was consoled by the thought that he had obtained the object of his life.

He had still a vast amount of hard labor to perform in welding together the discordant parts of his Kingdom, and increasing its material prosperity.

His prosperous reign was ended by a sudden death on January 9, 1878, when the crown passed to his eldest son, Humbert I.

KING AMADEUS.

It proved a very difficult task to fill up the vacancy on the Spanish throne, which had been productive of such vast results. After the collapse of the Hohenzollern candidature, the crown was offered to Victor Emanuel's second son, Amadeus of Aosta (born in 1845). The offer was accepted, and the young prince did his best to perform the duties which he had undertaken. But Spain was wholly unfit for a constitutional monarchy. Wearied out and disgusted by the incessant factions and intrigues, Amadeus resigned his crown in 1873. A provisional Republic was now formed, of which Castelar was the guiding spirit. But Don Carlos raised his standard once more in the Basque provinces, while the democrats of the South revolted against any central authority, and demanded the establishment of a republican federation. At last the restoration of order was undertaken by the army. The Cortes were dissolved by a coup d'etat, Castelar indignantly threw up his office, and a military republic was established. This insured the unity of the State, and the anarchy of the federalists was suppressed. But it was obvious that peace could not be finally restored except by the restoration of the monarchy, and the only possible candidate was the young Alfonso, the son of the exiled Isabella. In December, 1874, he was proclaimed King as Alfonso XII. The first business of the new monarch was to terminate the Carlist war, and this was successfully accomplished in 1876. From this time the restored monarchy has maintained itself in Spain, and has satisfied the people, though without exciting any enthusiastic devotion.

GERMANY AND THE VATICAN.

The German Government, under Bismarck's lead, in June, 1872, enacted a law suppressing the order of Jesuits and other ecclesiastical bodies. This led, in December following, to an open rupture between the German Government and the Vatican. In May of the following year the German Government adopted the famous "May Laws" of Dr. Falk, directed against the Catholic Church. Thus was begun a political-ecclesiastical conflict which was waged with much bitterness for many years, and which ultimately ended in the triumph of the Catholic Church over the German Government in the total repeal of the obnoxious laws.

EMANCIPATION IN BRAZIL.

The Brazilian Government on September 28, 1871, passed an act providing for the gradual abolition of slavery in that Empire.

The Cuban war which had been dragging on for some time assumed a new phase in 1873. On October 31st of that year a Spanish gunboat seized a ship under the American flag, which was charged with carrying filibusters into Cuba. The passengers and crew of the ship, chiefly American citizens, were taken to Cuba as prisoners, and many of them savagely put to death without trial. Relations between the United States and Spain were strained almost to the breaking point, but war was finally averted by Spain's yielding to the American demands on November 29th. The American ship which had been seized, the "Virginius," was surrendered by Spain on December 16th.

The Russian Government achieved the conquest of Khiva in 1873. In the same year the Dutch Government became involved in the Atcheen war with natives in its East Indian Empire, a war which is still dragging its interminable length along.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

Completion of Pacific Railroad and Suez Canal—Obituary—Baker on the Nile—Chicago Fire—Mont Cenis Tunnel—Hoosac Tunnel—Polar Exploration—Stanley's Search for Livingstone—End of Livingstone's Career—Death of Livingstone—Two Great Fires—The Centennial of Independence—Various Doings in Various Lands.

THE eight years with which the present chapter deals were full of interest to the general progress of the world. They were marked with the completion of several of the greatest engineering undertakings in history. Foremost among these was the completion of the Pacific Railroad, in 1869, by which achievement the two coasts of the American continent were connected with an iron highway, and the old caravans across the plains, or the long voyages around Cape Horn or across the Central American Isthmus were obviated. The last link in this great highway was forged at Promontory, Utah, when the last spike, a golden one, was driven with a silver hammer, and two locomotives, one from the east and one from the west, came together front to front. The part this road has played in the development of the United States cannot be over-estimated. Vast areas which were once vaguely referred to as the Great American Desert were opened up to settlement, and were soon transformed into prosperous commonwealths. Other roads were afterward built across the United States, until at the present time they number half a dozen, with others in prospect.

The same year saw the opening, with imposing ceremonies, of the Suez Canal, by means of which a direct international waterway was opened from the Mediterranean Sea to the Indian Ocean by way of the Red Sea. This route greatly shortened the trip from Europe to India and China, and was of especial importance to Great Britain,



MME. ADELINA PATTI



SARAH BERNHARDT



JENNY LIND



HENRY IRVING



EDWIN BOOTH



EDWIN FORREST



J.P. KEMBLE



JOSEPH JEFFERSON



RICHARD MANSFIELD



1896—ITALIANS FIGHTING AGAINST KING MENELIK IN ABYSSINIA

because of her paramount interests in Asia. It had the effect of lessening the importance of Constantinople and of increasing that of Egypt as the "key of Asia." Thereafter British solicitude for the safety of Constantinople waned, while British determination to control Egypt correspondingly increased.

OBITUARY.

The death roll for 1869 included three names of the first rank—viz., Franklin Pierce, formerly President of the United States; Lamartine, the great French statesman and historian, whose name is inseparably connected with the overthrow of the Bourbon dynasty in France; and of Sainte-Beuve, the Frenchman of letters, who is probably to be ranked for all time as the foremost of literary critics, indeed as the founder of the art of intelligent and discriminating literary criticism.

BAKER ON THE NILE.

Sir Samuel Baker has already been mentioned as one of the most energetic and effective of African explorers, and one of the discoverers of the great lakes which form a conspicuous part of the upper Nile system. In 1870 he was again sent thither by the British Government, nominally under Egyptian direction, to survey the Nile, open it to commerce, and to establish Egyptian sovereignty in the Eastern Soudan. He did a great engineering work in cutting a passage through the gigantic masses of "sud" or vegetable accumulations which completely blocked the channel of the Nile, and thus made the river navigable up to the lakes. Finding the Soudan occupied only by discordant tribes, without any general government, he had little difficulty in annexing a vast domain to Egypt. In so doing he performed a great work for civilization. At the same time he opened the way for the great drama of later years, when the Mahdi arose against Egyptian rule, and Gordon was sacrificed at Khartoum, and the reconquest of the Soudan was finally effected at incalculable cost.

In 1870 also occurred the deaths of Dickens and the elder Dumas, the greatest novelists of England and France respectively; of Admiral Farragut, the foremost naval commander on the Union side in the Civil War, and of General Lee, the chieftain of the Confederate armies.

CHICAGO FIRE.

The year 1871 was made memorable in the United States by the great fire in the city of Chicago. This began on the evening of Sunday, October 8, in a barn in the outskirts of the city. It was caused by a cow kicking over a lamp, by the light of which the animal was being milked. The fire raged during the two following days. It burned over the heart of the city, comprising an area of about three and a half square miles. No fewer than 17,450 buildings were destroyed. More than two hundred lives were lost, and nearly 100,000 persons were rendered entirely homeless. The money loss aggregated more than \$200,000,000. This was by far the largest and most destructive fire recorded in the history of the world. It almost annihilated the city. But relief was proffered in abundant measure from all parts of the country and indeed of the world. The citizens of Chicago displayed an energy and enterprise in rebuilding such as never has been paralleled, and the city was soon restored to greater size and splendor than before the fire.

MONT CENIS TUNNEL.

An engineering work easily comparable with those already mentioned was the construction of the tunnel under Mont Cenis. This gigantic work, which gave for the first time direct railroad communication across the Alps, was first suggested in 1840. The work was actually begun by King Victor Emanuel on August 31, 1857. Until 1860 at the north and until 1862 at the south end, all drilling was done by hand. Then power drills were introduced and the work proceeded more rapidly. The two headings, from the two sides of the mountains, met on December 25, 1870, and so accurate had the work of the surveyors been that the difference in level of the two was scarcely twelve inches. The tunnel was formally opened for use on September 17, 1871. Its length is nearly eight miles, and its cost was about \$1100 per running yard.

HOOSAC TUNNEL.

We may at this point fittingly mention two other great tunnels of about the same time. One of these was the Hoosac Tunnel, through the Hoosac Mountains, in western Massachusetts. The Massachusetts

Legislature had agreed upon the desirability of it in 1825. In 1850 the site was selected. Work was begun in 1855, and abandoned in 1861. The State took the work in hand officially in 1863, and completed it on November 27, 1873. The tunnel is four and a half miles long, and cost \$14,000,000.

Work was begun in 1869 by United States army engineers on a tunnel under the rocks of Hell Gate, in the East River, New York. A system of intersecting tunnels was constructed, measuring 7426 feet in length. The whole system was charged with dynamite and exploded on September 24, 1876.

Still another tunnel, the longest in the world, may also be mentioned. This is the Rothschoenberg Tunnel, built to drain some mines in Saxony. It was begun in 1844 and was finished at the beginning of 1877. It is no less than thirty-one and a half miles in length. The Sutro Tunnel, four miles long, for draining mines in Nevada, was completed in June, 1879.

POLAR EXPLORATION.

Interest in Polar research never seemed to flag. In 1871 the American expedition under Captain Hall made its way as far north as latitude $82^{\circ} 16'$.

The next year the Austrian expedition of Weyprecht and Payer set out for the north. It was absent for several years, and had a most successful career. In 1873 it discovered and partially explored Francis Joseph Land, and in 1874 it reached its highest latitude, $82^{\circ} 5'$.

The next venture was a record-breaking one. In 1875 the British Captain Nares set out for the north of Greenland by way of Baffin Bay, in Mr. Leigh Smith's yacht, the "Eira." It reached a high latitude, and in 1876 a detachment of it on sledges reached $83^{\circ} 20'$, the highest latitude ever attained down to that date.

STANLEY'S SEARCH FOR LIVINGSTONE.

The African researches of Dr. Livingstone had interested all the world. In 1870 that illustrious explorer seemed to have become lost to view. Accordingly James Gordon Bennett, editor of the "New York Herald," sent a relief expedition to find him and relieve his wants. The head of this expedition was Henry M. Stanley, a young newspaper

correspondent, who had distinguished himself as an enterprising correspondent in the British war with Abyssinia. He was of Welsh nativity, but was a citizen of the United States, in which country he had spent most of his life. His march into the heart of the African wilderness in search of Livingstone, and its success, form one of the most romantic chapters in the history of adventure.

END OF LIVINGSTONE'S CAREER.

We have hitherto followed in general Livingstone's marvellous work in Africa. He recrossed Lake Tanganyika in July, 1869, and through the country of the Manyema he tried in vain, for a whole year, to reach and cross the Lualaba, baffled partly by the natives, partly by the slave-hunters, and partly by his long illnesses. It was, indeed, not till March 29, 1871, that he succeeded in reaching the Lualaba, at the town of Nyangwe, where he stayed four months, vainly trying to get a canoe to take him across. It was here that a party of Arab slavers, without warning or provocation, assembled one day when the market was busiest and commenced shooting down the poor women, hundreds being killed or drowned in trying to escape. Livingstone had "the impression that he was in hell," but was helpless, though his "first impulse was to pistol the murderers." The account of this scene which he sent home roused indignation in England to such a degree as to lead to determined and to a considerable extent successful efforts to get the Sultan of Zanzibar to suppress the trade. In sickened disgust the weary traveller made his way back to Ujiji, which he reached on October 13. Five days after his arrival in Ujiji he was cheered and inspired with new life, and completely set up again, as he said, by the timely arrival of Mr. Stanley. Mr. Stanley's residence with Livingstone was almost the only bright episode of these last sad years. With Stanley, Livingstone explored the north end of Tanganyika, and proved conclusively that the Lusize runs into and not out of it. In the end of the year the two started eastward for Unyanyembe, where Stanley provided Livingstone with an ample supply of goods, and bade him farewell.

DEATH OF LIVINGSTONE.

Stanley left on March 15, 1872, and after Livingstone had waited wearily at Unyanyembe for five months, a troop of fifty-seven men

and boys arrived, good and faithful fellows on the whole, selected by Stanley himself. Thus attended, he started on August 15 for Lake Bangweolo, proceeding along the east side of Tanganyika. His old enemy dysentery soon found him out. In January 1873 the party got among the endless spongy jungle on the east of Lake Bangweolo, Livingstone's object being to go round by the south and away west to find the "fountains." Vexatious delays took place, and the journey became one constant wade below, under an almost endless pour of rain from above. The Doctor got worse and worse, but no idea of danger seems to have occurred to him. At last, in the middle of April, he had unwillingly to submit to be carried in a rude litter. On April 29 Chitambo's village on the Lulimala, in Ilala, on the south shore of the lake, was reached. The last entry in the journal is April 27:—"Knocked up quite, and remain—recover—sent to buy milch goats. We are on the banks of the Molilamo." On April 30 he with difficulty wound up his watch, and early on the morning of May 1 the boys found "the great master," as they called him, kneeling by the side of his bed, dead. His faithful men preserved the body in the sun as well as they could, and wrapping it carefully up, carried it and all his papers, instruments, and other things across Africa to Zanzibar. It was borne to England with all honor, and on April 18, 1874, was deposited in Westminster Abbey, amid tokens of mourning and admiration such as England accords only to her greatest sons. Government bore all the funeral expenses. His faithfully kept journals during these seven years' wanderings were published under the title of the "Last Journals of David Livingstone in Central Africa," in 1874, edited by his old friend, the Rev. Horace Waller.

In spite of his sufferings and the many compulsory delays, Livingstone's discoveries during these last years were both extensive and of prime importance as leading to a solution of African hydrography. No single African explorer has ever done so much for African geography as Livingstone during his thirty years' work. His travels covered one third of the continent, extending from the Cape to near the equator, and from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. Livingstone was no hurried traveller; he did his journeying leisurely, carefully observing and recording all that was worthy of note, with rare geographical instinct and the eye of a trained scientific observer, studying the

ways of the people, eating their food, living in their huts, and sympathizing with their joys and sorrows. It will be long till the tradition of his sojourn dies out among the native tribes, who almost, without exception, treated Livingstone as a superior being; his treatment of them was always tender, gentle, and gentlemanly. But the direct gains to geography and science are perhaps not the greatest results of Livingstone's journeys. He conceived, developed, and carried out to success a noble and many-sided purpose, with unflinching and self-sacrificing energy and courage that entitled him to take rank among the great and strong who single-handed have been able materially to influence human progress, and the advancement of knowledge. His example and his death have acted like an inspiration, filling Africa with an army of explorers and missionaries, and raising in Europe so powerful a feeling against slave-trade that it may be considered as having received its deathblow. Personally Livingstone was a pure and tender-hearted man, full of humanity and sympathy. The motto of his life was his advice to some school children in Scotland,—“Fear God, and work hard.”

TWO GREAT FIRES.

Two more destructive fires are now to be recorded. One broke out in the heart of the city of Boston on November 9, 1872, and destroyed 800 buildings and inflicted a loss of \$80,000,000.

The second was the burning of the Brooklyn Theatre, in the city of Brooklyn, N. Y. This occurred on the night of December 5, 1876, and destroyed 295 human lives.

The death list of 1871 included the names of Herschel, the astronomer; Auber, the composer, and Grote, the historian. In 1872 died Horace Greeley, the editor of the “New York Tribune;” Mazzini, the Italian revolutionist and liberator; and General Meade, the hero of Gettysburg.

The year 1872 was marked with a great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, one of the most extensive and most destructive in the modern history of that volcano.

An International Exhibition was held in Vienna in 1873, and proved a great success.

In the latter years occurred the deaths of Bulwer-Lytton, the English novelist; John Stuart Mill, the English philosopher and political economist.

ist; Manzoni, the Italian novelist, poet and dramatist, and Agassiz, the Swiss-American scientist. Louis Napoleon, ex-Emperor of France, died in the same year.

THE CENTENNIAL OF INDEPENDENCE.

The centenary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence was celebrated in the United States on July 4, 1876, with unprecedented popular festivities. A feature of the occasion was the holding of a world's fair in the city of Philadelphia, from May to November of that year. This was the largest and most successful Universal Exhibition the world had at that time ever seen. The buildings covered more than seventy acres of ground, there were 30,864 exhibitors, from all parts of the world, and the unprecedented number of 10,164,489 persons entered it during the 159 days on which it was open. These figures simply dwarfed those of the previous shows in Paris, London, and elsewhere.

At this exhibition the newly-invented telephone was for the first time publicly exhibited. The electric light at this time began to be considered a practical possibility. The reaping machine, invented and in general use long before, now reached its highest development, and other mechanical and scientific devices were made known to the world.

VARIOUS DOINGS IN VARIOUS LANDS.

In 1874 the Dutch war in Atcheen took a favorable turn and was nearly ended. Lieutenant Cameron in 1875 completed a noteworthy journey across the African continent. In 1875-6 the Khedive Ismail, of Egypt, waged an unsuccessful war of intended conquest against Abyssinia and was badly beaten. Russia annexed Khokan in 1876, and Porfirio Diaz became President of Mexico.

The necrology of these years includes in 1874 the names of ex-President Fillmore, Charles Sumner, and Guizot, the French historian and statesman. In 1875 ex-President Johnson, Lyell, the geologist, and Andersen, the writer of fairy-tales died. In 1876 died Deak, the Hungarian statesman, and George Sand, the French novelist.

CHAPTER XL.

Rutherford B. Hayes becomes President of the United States—Civil Service Reform—Free Coinage of Silver—Specie Payments—Incidents of the Administration—Labor Troubles—Knights of Labor—Growth of the Order—First General Assembly—Presidential Election.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES began his term as President of the United States on March 4, 1877. We have already told of the circumstances under which he was elected and declared elected.

Threats of resistance to his inauguration were made, but proved idle. To the end a large part of the nation refused to regard him as the morally rightful President, but his legal authority as the actual President was never challenged. His administration was, on the whole, wise and prudent, and greatly advanced the political welfare of the nation. The Federal troops were withdrawn from the Southern States, and the fullest measure of home rule was there re-established. The so-called Greenback Craze, a popular demand for irredeemable paper money, swept over the country and materially affected Congressional legislation. The President, however, resisted it and stood persistently for a gold basis for the national currency.

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

A noteworthy feature of the Hayes administration was the first practical step toward Civil Service Reform. This was made in a Presidential order forbidding Federal office-holders to take part in political campaigns to the neglect of their official duties.

Ex-President Grant left this country early in 1877 for a tour around the world, in which he was received everywhere with official and popular honors never before accorded to any traveller.

A war with the Nez Perces Indians broke out in May, 1877, and lasted until October, when it was ended by the energetic work of

General Miles, after one of the most remarkable campaigns in the history of our Indian wars.

FREE COINAGE OF SILVER.

A memorable political incident was the introduction of a bill in Congress, by Representative Bland, of Missouri, on November 5, 1877, for the free coinage of silver into dollars at the ratio of 16 to 1—that is, that sixteen ounces of silver should be reckoned equal in value to one ounce of gold. The free coinage of silver, long practically suspended, had been discontinued by act of Congress in 1873. Mr. Bland's resolution was adopted. President Hayes vetoed it, and on February 28, 1878, it was passed over the President's veto and became a law. In this episode was the origin of the silver question which has since been so conspicuous a feature of American politics.

SPECIE PAYMENTS.

President Hayes, in his annual message of December 3, 1877, recommended the resumption of specie payments by the Government, which had been suspended since early in the Civil War, to take effect on January 1, 1879. This action of the Government was vigorously opposed by the enemies of the administration, and was declared to be impracticable and impossible. But the President and his supporters persevered, and such resumption of specie payments was successfully effected on the date mentioned without the least disturbance of the finances of the nation, but, on the contrary, with a great general gain for sound business methods.

The National Greenback Party, favoring the use of irredeemable paper as currency, was organized on February 22, 1878, and for some years played an important part in national politics.

INCIDENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

Among the incidents which marked the Hayes administration was the payment of \$5,000,000 to Great Britain, in November, 1877, as an award under the Treaty of Washington, for American use of Canadian fisheries. In May, 1878, a Congressional investigation of alleged frauds in the Presidential election of 1876 was begun. The investigation lasted a long time, but its results were inconclusive. In June, 1878, an act of

Congress forbade the use of the Federal army as a *posse comitatus* to execute laws, except as expressly provided by the Constitution. At the same time the Life Saving Service was greatly extended and organized. That summer a serious epidemic of yellow fever prevailed in the Southern States.

The first regular Embassy from China to the United States arrived at Washington in September, 1878. Soon after a bill was introduced into Congress to prohibit further Chinese immigration into the United States. The progress of the debate thereon was marked, on February 14, 1879, by the first occupancy of a Senatorial chair by a negro, the Senator in question being Mr. B. K. Bruce, of Mississippi. The next day women were permitted, by act of Congress, to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States. The Chinese exclusion bill was adopted by Congress, but was vetoed by the President on March 1, 1879. Three days later the National Health Board was created.

LABOR TROUBLES.

The year 1877 was marked with some of the most serious labor troubles in the history of the country. Early in that year ten leaders of the criminal organization known as Molly Maguires were hanged in Pennsylvania. That incident had no real relation to honest labor interests. But soon thereafter strikes, accompanied with violence, began in various industries and in various parts of the country.

The first great railroad strike in the United States began at Martinsburg, W. Va., on July 16, 1877, when the locomotive firemen went out on the Baltimore & Ohio road. Within a week this strike had spread to the Pennsylvania, Erie, Lake Shore, Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Chicago, Cincinnati & St. Louis, Vandalia, Ohio & Mississippi, C., C., C. & I., Erie & Pittsburg, Philadelphia & Erie, Chicago & Alton, Canada Southern and other minor lines. The troops were called out at Martinsburg, and against their efforts to preserve order the mob of strikers were successful. The Fifth Maryland Regiment was mobbed in the streets of Baltimore while marching to the depot to leave for the scene of trouble. The National Guard of Pennsylvania was mobbed in the streets of Pittsburg, and the momentous nature of the disturbance, closely approximating civil war in Pittsburg, speedily made itself felt all over the United States. It was in Pittsburg that the railroad round-houses and freight-

cars were burned, that the lives of the First City Troop of Philadelphia were seriously imperilled, and that a total damage was done amounting, it is said, to not less than \$5,000,000 to the Pennsylvania Railroad Company alone. When the United States troops arrived the mobs dispersed, and quiet was finally restored. It is difficult to form any accurate idea of the aggregate of destruction to property which resulted from the railroad strike of 1877. Two million dollars of the railroad company's \$5,000,000 loss the taxpayers of Allegheny county were compelled to pay. The interruption to travel, the mental disturbances occasioned to nervous people, the general moral deterioration which seems to follow all such popular outbursts on the part of those who indulge in them, must be added as items of loss to the grand aggregate of property ruined and wages and lives lost. Twelve men were killed in Baltimore alone on July 20th. The slaughter in Pittsburg on the 21st of the same month was deplorable, and was said at the time to be due to a blunder of the militia. It is noticeable that the men on the New York Central Railroad did not join in this strike. In return for their loyalty to their employers \$100,000 in cash was divided among them.

KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

The year 1877 was notable, too, for the general organization of the order of Knights of Labor. This order was born on Thanksgiving Day, 1869, in the city of Philadelphia, and was the result of the efforts of Uriah S. Stephens, as the leader, and six associates, all garment-cutters. For several years previous to this date the garment-cutters of Philadelphia had been organized as a trades-union, but had failed to maintain a satisfactory rate of wages in their trade. A feeling of dissatisfaction prevailed, which resulted, in the fall of 1869, in a vote to disband the union. Stephens, foreseeing this result, had quietly prepared the outlines of a plan for an organization embracing "all branches of honorable toil," and based upon education, which, through co-operation and an intelligent use of the ballot, should gradually abolish the present wage system.

GROWTH OF THE ORDER.

Mr. Stephens' associates, or those who agreed with him to form a secret society to take the place of the disbanded Garment-cutters' Union, were James L. Wright, Robert C. Macauley, Joseph S. Kennedy, William

Cook, Robert W. Keen and James M. Hilsee. At a subsequent meeting, held December 28, 1869, upon the report of a Committee on Ritual, involving obligations and oaths, Mr. Stephens and his six associates subscribed their names to the obligations ; and, when the ritual was adopted, Mr. James L. Wright moved that the new order be named the "Knights of Labor."

Mr. Stephens brought into the ritual of the new order many of the features of speculative Masonry, especially in the forms and ceremonies observed. The obligations were in the nature of oaths, taken with all solemnity upon the Bible. The members were sworn to the strictest secrecy. The name even of the order was not to be divulged ; and it was for a long time referred to in the literature of the Knights of Labor, in their circulars, meetings, reports, and conversation, as "Five Stars," five stars being used in all printing and writing to designate the name of the order. There were also introduced into the ritual many classical expressions taken from the Greek.

No details or general laws for the government of the order appear to have been adopted until the formation of the first Local Assembly in 1873 ; but the plan presented at the meeting in November, 1869, was heartily approved, and adopted by Stephens' associates. Meetings were held weekly ; and on January 13, 1870, the new organization chose its officers to the several positions called for by the ritual, as follows : Venerable Sage, Past-officer, James L. Wright ; Master Workman, U. S. Stephens ; Worthy Foreman, Robert W. Keen ; Worthy Inspector, William Cook ; Unknown Knight, Joseph Kennedy. The office of Statistician was created February 3d, and the position filled by the election of Robert C. Macauley.

FIRST GENERAL ASSEMBLY.

The Local Assemblies were soon organized, as they grew in numbers, into District Assemblies, and late in 1877 a call was issued for all District Assemblies then existing to choose delegates, who should meet in convention and organize a General Assembly. These delegates met at Reading, Pennsylvania, January 1, 1878, and organized the first General Assembly. Mr. Stephens, the founder, was called to the chair, pending permanent organization. The delegates were in session four days, the following officers being chosen : Grand Master Workman,

Uriah S. Stephens, of Philadelphia ; Grand Worthy Foreman, Ralph Beaumont, of Elmira, New York ; Grand Secretary, Charles H. Litchman, of Marblehead, Massachusetts ; Grand Assistant Secretary, John G. Laning, of Clifton, West Virginia ; Grand Treasurer, Thomas M. Gallagher, of St. Louis, Missouri.

When the third annual session of the General Assembly was held at Chicago in September, 1879, Terrence V. Powderly was elected to succeed Mr. Stephens as General Master Workman. The order had at this time 700 Local Assemblies, and a membership of many thousands.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

The Presidential campaign of 1880 was marked with two noteworthy features. One was the candidacy of ex-President Grant for nomination for a third term, which was defeated only after an exciting struggle in the Republican National Convention. The other was the appearance of the Greenback party, with a formidable following, in the field as a third party.

The Republican candidates for President and Vice-President were James A. Garfield, of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York. The Democratic candidates were General W. S. Hancock, of New York, and W. H. English, of Indiana. The Greenbackers nominated General James B. Weaver, of Iowa, and B. J. Cambers, of Mississippi. After a close and exciting campaign, in which much personal abuse of candidates prevailed, Garfield and Arthur were elected, receiving 214 electoral votes, against 155 cast for Hancock and English.

CHAPTER XLI.

War between Russia and Turkey—Plevna—Shipka Pass—Treaty of Stefano—Treaty of Berlin—Results of the War—Second Afghan War—Conquest of Burmah—Australia—Development of the Colonies—New Zealand—Canada—Irish Agitation—Crime in Ireland—"Boycotting"—Montenegro—Nihilism—Zulu and Transvaal Wars—Pope and King.

AT the outbreak of her war with Turkey, in April, 1867, Russia concluded a treaty with Roumania, and the latter country soon after proclaimed its long-coveted independence of the Sublime Porte. Servia and Montenegro also embraced the opportunity of repudiating the last vestiges of Turkish authority. The early engagements of the war were chiefly favorable to the Turks. The first battle, near Batoum, a place on the south-east coast of the Black Sea, resulted in the defeat of the Russians with a heavy loss. Other engagements followed, in which the Turks more than held their own, against the far superior numbers and better equipment of the Russians. It was seen, indeed, that the Turks were still a nation of warriors, worthy descendants of the conquering tribes of former centuries.

PLEVNA.

The crowning Turkish achievement of the war, however, was the defence of Plevna, a place commanding the passage of the Balkans. This place was of much natural strength, and was heroically defended by Osman Pasha, the greatest of Turkish generals, against an overwhelming force of Russians led by the Czar himself. The first Russian attack was repulsed with dreadful slaughter, and the Russian army was almost destroyed. The Czar narrowly escaped capture. The Russians were saved from total ruin only by the opportune arrival of a detachment of their Roumanian allies, whom they had before that scorned as mere amateur soldiers.

A second attack upon Plevna was made two months later, on September 11th, but with no better result for the Russians than the first.

Then the Russians, despairing of beating the Turks at fighting, decided to invest and starve the garrison to surrender, and Osman Pasha, though isolated from all help, held his post with unflinching resolution, till, on December 11th, he resolved to force his way through the Russian intrenchments. But he was wounded and driven back, and compelled to surrender, with 10,000 prisoners and 400 guns. This disastrous event was still more ruinous to the Turkish cause, as in the previous month the Russians had taken Kars by assault, inflicting on the Turks the loss of 12,000 men killed and wounded, and 300 guns (November 13th). Meanwhile the Russian advanced force crossed the Balkans, defeated the Turks, and took Sofia (December 31, 1877).

SHIPKA PASS.

At the beginning of the new year the Porte resolved to sue for an armistice, while the Russians crossed the Balkans in full force and captured the Turkish army which had obstinately clung for months to the Shipka Pass (January 8-10, 1878). Just as the Sultan's envoys set out for the Russian camp their last army in Roumelia was defeated (January 16-17), and its remains were transported by sea for the defence of Constantinople, while Adrianople was yielded up without a blow (January 19-20). The time had now come when the interests of Great Britain, on the integrity of which she had from the first announced her neutrality to be conditional, were plainly threatened. Parliament met on January 17, having been summoned before the usual time in the prospect (said the Queen's speech) that, "should hostilities be prolonged, some unexpected occurrence may render incumbent on me to adopt measures of precaution." But on those measures the Cabinet itself was divided, and Lord Carnarvon resigned (January 24th). When, however, the news arrived that the Russians were threatening Gallipoli and the Dardanelles, and had advanced within thirty miles of Constantinople, the Liberals withdrew their opposition to the vote of £6,000,000 demanded by Government, and the British fleet was ordered to enter the Sea of Marmora (February 8th).

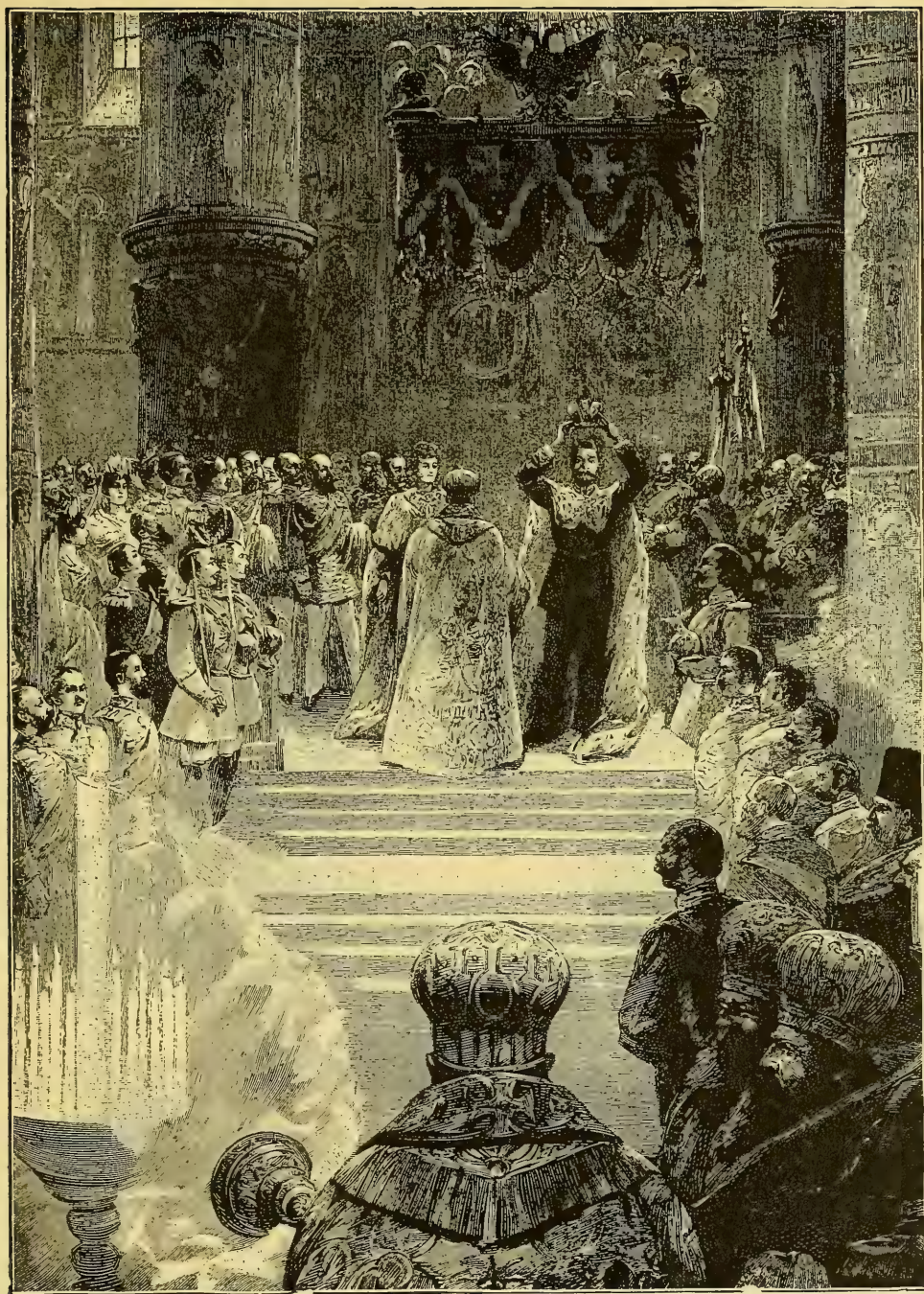
TREATY OF SAN STEFANO.

On the same day the severe terms exacted by Russia for an armistice became known, and the Turks yielded up the outer lines around Constantinople. On the 24th the Archduke Nicolas fixed his head-

quarters close to that city, at San Stefano, on the Sea of Marmora; and here a *preliminary treaty* was signed, which would have destroyed the Sultan's power, and placed what was left of him at the mercy of Russia (March 3d). The terms, which were afterwards confirmed, will be stated presently; but the main essence was contained in the creation of a great tributary, but self-governing, principality of Bulgaria, south as well as north of the Balkans, stretching across from the Black Sea to the Ægean, and leaving the Sultan only a narrow territory about Constantinople, the Sea of Marmora and the Straits. Russia did not deny that this reversal of the settlement of 1856 required some sanction from the European powers, but she held out against the firm demand of Great Britain, that the treaty of San Stefano should be laid *as a whole* before the proposed congress. At this crisis Lord Derby resigned (March 28th) rather than concur in the calling out of the army reserves, and the bringing a force of 7000 Indian troops to be in readiness at Malta. The first act of Lord Salisbury, on succeeding to the seals of the Foreign Office, was to issue a circular despatch, which at once made England's attitude clear. While acutely scanning the several items of the treaty, he insisted chiefly that it would establish the complete supremacy of Russia over Turkey, not so much by any single article as by "the operation of the instrument as a whole."

TREATY OF BERLIN.

Never did a state paper produce a more powerful effect. The vacillating policy of Austria was fixed to support England; and Prince Bismarck, eager to avert the European war which is now known to have been imminent, used all his influence to persuade Russia to give way. The Russian ambassador, Count Schouvalov, labored earnestly in conjunction with our Government for peace, and their secret negotiations resulted in a written agreement (May 30th) as to the chief points that should be yielded or insisted on at the congress which Prince Bismarck invited to meet at Berlin on June 13th. England was represented by Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury, by whose ability and the proof of earnestness given by the presence of the prime-minister (a very unusual step on such occasions), as well as by Prince Bismarck's resolution, the congress was brought to a successful issue, and the Treaty of Berlin was signed (July 13, 1878).



1896—CZAR NICHOLAS II. CROWNS HIMSELF IN THE KREMLIN OF MOSCOW



1897—QUEEN VICTORIA'S DIAMOND JUBILEE

RESULTS OF THE WAR.

Roumania, Servia and Montenegro gained their independence; the two latter States with enlarged frontiers; while Roumania had to give back to her too powerful ally the part of Bessarabia adjoining the Danube, receiving the marshes of the Dobruja at the expense of Bulgaria. The free navigation of the Danube was confirmed, and the fortresses on its banks were to be razed. Bosnia and the Herzegovina, which had led the insurrection against Turkey, were handed over to Austrian occupation. The huge Bulgaria, devised by General Ignatiev at San Stefano, was divided; the old province of that name, between the Danube and the Balkans, being erected into a tributary but self-governing principality under a prince to be elected by the people and approved by the Sultan and the powers; while the new province of Eastern Roumelia (south of the Balkans) was left to the Sultan, but with administrative self-government and other securities against oppression. The Sultan was advised to grant Greece an extension of territory. In Asia Russia gained more of Armenia, with the long-coveted port of Batoum; but, as a security against any future conquests on her part, the British government had already signed a convention with the Porte for the defence of the Turkish possessions in Asia, for which purpose Turkey gave Cyprus to be occupied by Great Britain. The British envoys were welcomed home on their return to England, as bringing, in Lord Beaconsfield's own words, "peace with honor."

SECOND AFGHAN WAR.

The second Afghan war (1878-80) was a direct consequence of the political conflict of England and Russia at Constantinople after the Turkish war of 1877-78. While hostilities between the two powers seemed probable, a Russian Embassy went to Cabul and enlisted the Ameer Shere Ali as a confederate of the Czar. Lord Lytton, the British Viceroy of India, resolved to stop this new development, declared war on the Afghan ruler, and sent three expeditions across the frontier into the Ameer's dominions. Candahar having fallen, and Sir Frederick Roberts having stormed the Peiwar-Kotal pass and advanced close to Cabul, the Ameer fled towards Russian territory, and died soon after. His son and successor, Yakub Khan, at once asked for peace, gave guarantees, and received a British Envoy as a permanent resident in his

capital. But this weak Prince was totally unable to control his wild subjects, who rose in arms, murdered the Envoy, Sir Louis Cavagnari, and all his escorts, and proclaimed the "holy war" (Jehad) against the British infidels. Lord Lytton was obliged to launch his armies for a second time against Afghanistan. Roberts again marched on Cabul, and occupied it after the battle of Charasia, but was soon beset by a vast horde of insurgents, who beleaguered him in his camp. He drove them off, however, and was completely triumphant long before reinforcements reached him from India.

But matters went worse in the south, where the pretender Ayoub Khan defeated at Maiwand the garrison of Candahar and formed the siege of that city. A bold resolution was taken at Cabul. Sir Frederick Roberts, gathering a force of over 9000 men, marched to the relief of Candahar, allowing Abdurrahman, with whom all arrangements had been previously concluded, to occupy Cabul, and leaving to General Stewart the duty of leading back the rest of the British troops by the Khyber to the Punjab. Roberts, cut off from direct communication with his countrymen, disappeared, as it were, from human ken for three weeks, during which the national anxiety was extreme. It was doubted whether Candahar could hold out until relieved, and yet relief from no other quarter could be hoped for in time. At length Roberts emerged victorious from the trackless region between Cabul and Candahar without the loss of a man. Falling on the besiegers he scattered them at the battle of Candahar (September 1, 1880), and practically finished the war at a single blow. Lord Lytton would have liked to annex much of the conquered territory, but Mr. Gladstone was now in power at home, and the warlike Viceroy was recalled. The Liberal Government withdrew the British troops, after recognizing as Ameer Abdur Rahman, a nephew of the late ruler, Shere Ali. He has, on the whole, proved a good neighbor to India, and kept faithfully the pledges which he made in 1880.

CONQUEST OF BURMAH.

The next important movement in the Indian Empire was on the flank furthest from Afghanistan. The Kings of Burmah had always been vexatious neighbors, and in 1885 the British were drawn into war with Theebaw, a despot who had massacred all his relatives and entered into intrigues with France. His worthless army was scattered with ease, and

his whole dominion annexed; but the suppression of the brigandage (*dacoity*), which had always prevailed in Burmah, proved a much harder business than the dethronement of the King, and was not finished for several years, during which many scores of expeditions had to be sent out against the bandits.

AUSTRALIA.

Australia was in 1800 very imperfectly known, though an English convict settlement had been planted at Port Jackson some twelve years before. But even down to 1802 its shape was so little known that the great island of Tasmania was supposed to form a part of it. As long as the region was nothing more than a place of punishment for those "who left their country for their country's good," it was not likely to develop fast or happily. But, after the peace of Vienna, the capacities of the vast plains of Eastern Australia began to be known; no region so well suited for pastoral enterprises on the largest scale exists in all the world. Free settlers, provided with some little capital, began to drift in and to plant their stations on the broad grassy upland of New South Wales, where sheep and cattle soon began to multiply at an astounding rate. But for a whole generation the unsavory convict element continued to predominate, and to give the continent a bad name. Fortunately the amelioration of the English criminal law, between 1820 and 1840, began to diminish the depth of the stream of ruffianism which was poured into Australia year by year, while the free colonists grew more numerous as the opening for the sheep farmer began to be realized. The feeling among them as to the further importation of convicts grew so strong that the British Government diverted the main stream from New South Wales (1840) to newer penal settlements in Tasmania and Western Australia. The system was not, however, finally abandoned in Tasmania till 1853, and in Western Australia till 1864, though in the last years of its existence the annual export of convicts had been very small.

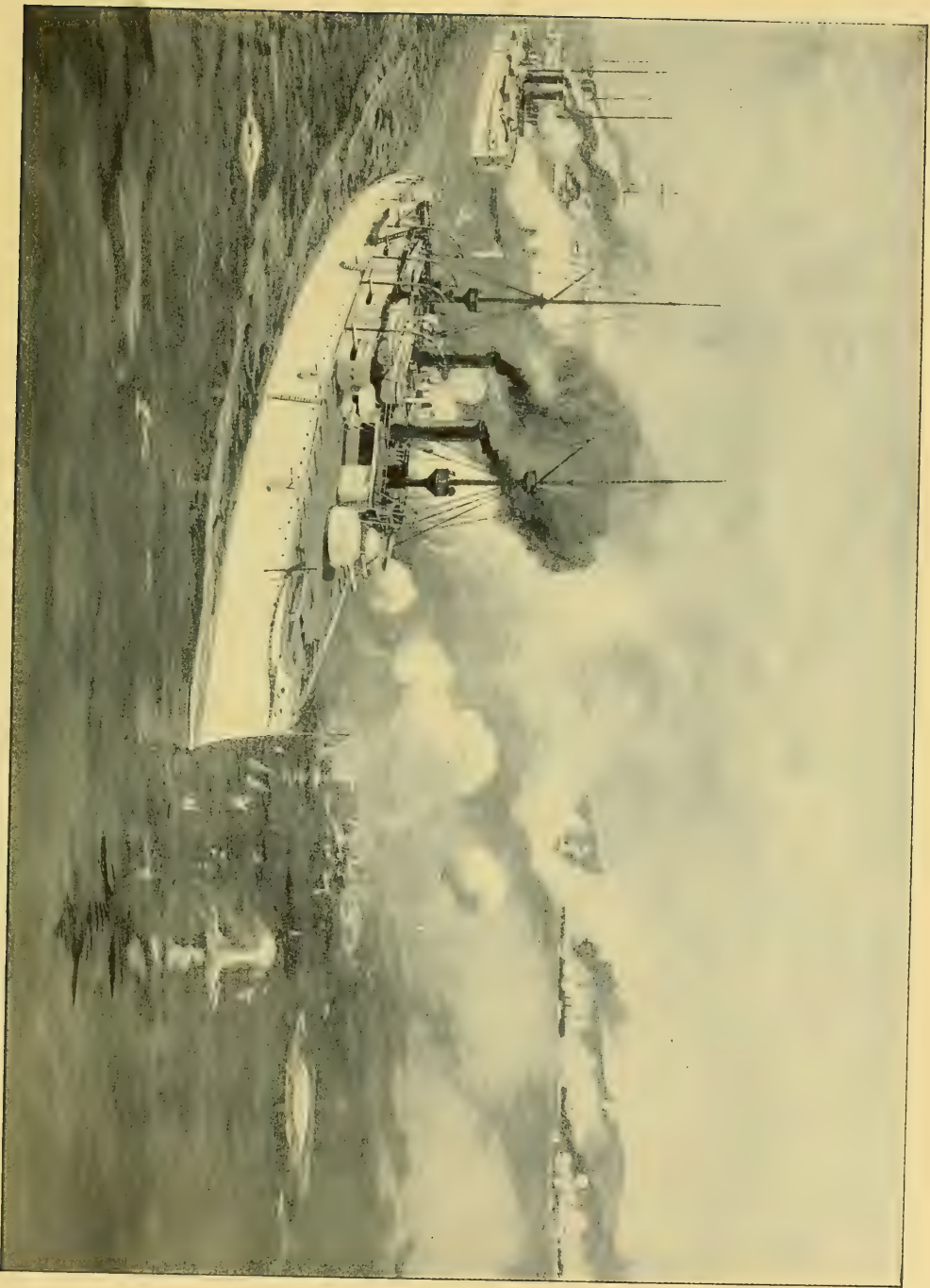
DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLONIES.

Down to the middle of the century it seemed likely that Australia would never develop into anything more than a thinly populated pastoral country, occupied by a community of "squatters," each owning a vast run of many thousand acres, and employing a few shepherds and cattle-men to tend his live stock. Wool, tallow and hides, with a certain

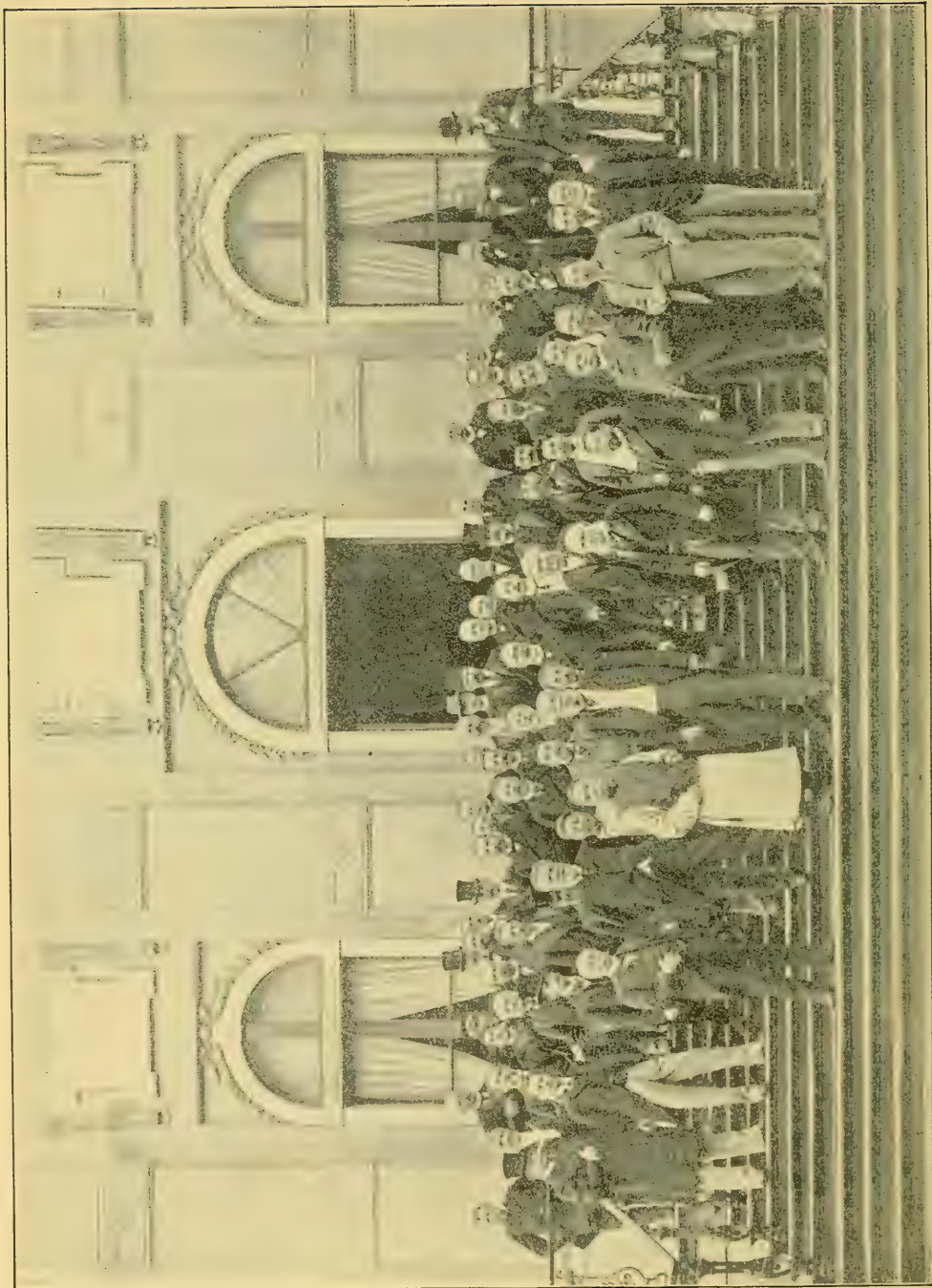
amount of timber, were practically the sole exports of the continent. But all was changed in 1848-51 by the discovery in Port Phillip, the southern region of New South Wales, of enormous deposits of alluvial gold, richer than anything known in the old world, and vieing in wealth with those of California. There was, of course, an instant rush to the new gold field, and the population of the Port Phillip district went up so rapidly that it was cut off from the parent colony and formed into a separate community under the name of Victoria, in 1851. It has ever since remained one of the chief gold-producing centres of the world, and more than £250,000,000 worth of the precious metal has been extracted from its mines. More than £4,000,000 worth a year is still exported, though the easy surface deposits have long been exhausted, and all the material has to be crushed by machinery from the solid quartz reef. Some time after the Victorian gold field was developed similar fields of smaller extent and lesser richness were found to exist in other parts of the continent. New South Wales and the younger colony of Queensland (created in 1859) have both an important output, and quite lately similar deposits have been discovered in Western Australia.

NEW ZEALAND.

To the east of Australia lies the colony of New Zealand, consisting of two large and one small island placed far out in the Pacific, some twelve hundred miles from the nearest point of New South Wales. Colonization here only began in the reign of Victoria, the first emigrants arriving in 1839. The history of New Zealand has been very different from that of the Australian Continent, owing to the existence of a large and energetic native population. The aborigines of Australia, a few thousand scattered over a vast continent, were among the lowest and most barbarous of mankind. The Maori tribes of New Zealand, on the other hand, were a fierce and intelligent race, given to the horrid practice of cannibalism, but in other respects by no means an unpromising people. They were ready and able to defend themselves when they considered their rights had been infringed, and since the first settlement there have been three wars (1843-47, 1863-64, 1869-70), in which the Maoris displayed great courage, and considerable skill in fortification. Regular troops in large force had to be employed to evict them from their stockaded "*Pahs*." Of late years a better *modus vivendi* has been found, and



1898—BATTLE OF MANILA BAY



1899—PEACE CONFERENCE AT THE HAGUE. HOLLAND

they seem contented with their large reservations of land, their subsidies from Government, and the four seats which have been given them in the New Zealand Parliament.

The islands were, at their first colonization, organized as six provinces, each with a separate government, and were not united into a thoroughly centralized union till 1875. Their general character differs from that of Australia, as they are far more broken up by mountains, better watered, and much more temperate in climate. In the southern island snow not unfrequently falls. There are large pastoral districts and grassy plains, which supply the frozen meat now so common in English markets, but also considerable mining regions and large forest tracts. New Zealand was never dominated by the "squatter" aristocracy which once ruled Australia, but had always been in the hands of the smaller farmers. It is in sentiment the most democratic of all the Australian colonies, and has gone further even than Victoria on the road towards placing all social enterprise, industry and commerce under State control.

CANADA.

The progress of British North America was greatly assisted by the federation of the colonies, carried out between 1867 and 1873. The two Canadas, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia formed themselves into the new Dominion of Canada in the first-named year; the North-western Territory, once the property of the Hudson Bay Company, joined them in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, and Prince Edward Island in 1873. The remote fishing colony of Newfoundland has preferred not to cast in its lot with the rest, though in its dealings with its aggressive French neighbors it would be greatly helped by being able to speak with the same voice as its greater sisters. The Dominion is now a federal government, with a Governor-General, a Senate appointed for life, and a House of Representatives. The individual provinces still retain for local purposes their provincial assemblies, and enjoy complete home rule under the central government.

Since the federation, the most important landmark in the history of the colonies is undoubtedly the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway between 1881 and 1885. Since it was finished the development of Manitoba and the other regions of the "Great Lone Land" has been very rapid. Nine new provinces now exist in this once uninhabited region,

with a rapidly growing population of over 300,000 souls. They are mainly devoted to ranching and corn-growing, unlike the districts further east, where the lumber trade is the great industry. The Canadian Pacific has an imperial as well as a colonial importance, since it provides a quick route to the extreme East, passing entirely through British territory. About 1100 miles is saved in passing from Liverpool to Japan or Northern China, if the route by Halifax, Montreal and Vancouver is taken rather than that by the Suez Canal and Singapore.

IRISH AGITATION.

At the opening of the year 1880 the condition of Ireland was causing much anxiety, and that anxiety, through many changes of form, constantly increased. Fear was everywhere felt of an impending famine, and the Conservative Ministry were violently assailed for not taking adequate measures to avert loss of life. It proved, however, that even in the most grievously afflicted districts the provision made by public assistance or private alms for the relief of distress was ample, nor has the malignity of anti-English agitators been able to point to the spectacle of a starving community.

But, while the alarm of famine and the lavish expenditure upon relief combined to demoralize the Irish people, the followers of Mr. Parnell steadily labored to raise a popular cry against the payment of rent. At the outset the distress was made the pretext of a refusal to fulfill contracts relating to land, but Mr. Parnell very soon advanced to a more commanding position. He advised the peasantry to "hold the land," and to pay only so much rent as they deemed fair, and he allowed it to be plainly seen that his ultimate object was the separation of Ireland from Great Britain. Early in the year Mr. Parnell visited the United States with the object of raising a fund, partly for the relief of distress, and partly for the promotion of his political objects at home. His success was not conspicuous, but his influence as the rallying-point of disaffected feeling in Ireland was increased, and at the general election more than half of the Home Rule candidates had to pledge themselves to follow him blindly.

CRIME IN IRELAND.

After Parliament was prorogued the language of Mr. Parnell and his lieutenants grew more fierce, and agrarian crime increased with fright-

ful rapidity. The Land League proceeded to enact that tenants should nowhere pay more than Griffith's valuation, which was at least 25 per cent. under the letting value of ordinary land when the basis of rating was fixed according to the low standard of agricultural prices ruling a generation ago. Attempts to resist this decision, either on the part of landlords demanding their due, or of tenants willing to pay, were punished by atrocious outrages, including murder, maiming, destruction of cattle and crops, and torture inflicted on men and animals.

"BOYCOTTING."

But even these disclosures had less effect in arousing public opinion in England than the extraordinary system of intimidation put in force against Captain Boycott, Lord Erne's agent near Lough Mask, on the borders of Galway and Mayo. Captain Boycott had incurred the enmity of the Land League by attempting to enforce the payment of rent, and sentence of social excommunication was passed upon him. His servants and laborers were ordered to leave him, shopkeepers were forbidden to deal with him, his cattle and crops were doomed to perish of neglect. The victim could have obtained assistance from England or from Ulster, but that it was well known that the lives of the new-comers would have been in extreme danger. Police protection was utterly powerless, and intimidation would have carried its point without check had not the spirit of the Ulster men been stirred up, and an expedition for the "relief" of Lough Mask House been organized among the tenant farmers of Cavan and Monaghan. The Government became seriously alarmed at the prospect of a collision between the relief party and the peasantry. An army of nearly 1000 men, with cavalry, infantry and artillery all complete, was despatched to the scene of action, and the "invaders," as the Land League styled them, were allowed to gather in part of Captain Boycott's crops.

But when the work was done Captain Boycott's position was little better than before. He had to leave the farm in which he had sunk all his capital, and which was surrendered to the pranks of malignity and rapine. The impossibility of keeping intimidation at bay by the use of troops to protect individuals was strikingly demonstrated. "Boycotting" became general, and although resting upon criminal threats or outrages, it has been carried on without effectual resistance on the part of the law.

MONTENEGRO.

In 1880 the Porte had not given effect to any of the numerous compromises suggested for solving the Montenegrin frontier difficulty, on the pretence that opposition of the Albanians made it impossible to execute the transfer of territory acknowledged in principle to be a part of the settlement imposed by the treaty ; and had all along refused to accept as binding the recommendation of the protocol adopted at Berlin, that a large part of Thessaly and Epirus should be ceded to Greece. Both questions were taken in hand by the Powers after the change of ministry in England.

Ultimately the powers decided upon insisting that the town and district of Dulcigno should be peacefully surrendered to Montenegro by a fixed date. In the event of a non-compliance a naval demonstration, representing all the Powers, was to take place. Turkey still held back, and a conjoint squadron under the British admiral, Sir Beauchamp Seymour, assembled at Ragusa. The immediate effect was not pacific. Kadri Pasha's ministry fell, and Said returned to power. For awhile it appeared that a conflict could not be avoided. The Sultan addressed a letter to the European ambassadors declaring that until the naval demonstration was withdrawn he could not entertain the question of surrendering Dulcigno. On the other hand, though the allied squadron had taken up a menacing position close to the scene of the cession demanded, the admirals were not empowered to accede to the demand of Montenegro for active aid and a guarantee of indemnity. The Porte, perceiving the hesitation of the Powers, published a note on October 4, 1880, which was generally regarded as a defiance of Europe.

The issue between the policies of conflicting coercion and suasion could no longer be avoided by the European cabinets. It has since become known that the policy of coercion could not have been insisted upon without entailing the rupture of the European concert. The British Government proposed that the fleet should be dispatched to Smyrna with a view to putting pressure upon the Sultan by the sequestration of the customs revenues. Russia and Italy were willing to join in this project, but Austria and Germany were disinclined to accept any share of responsibility. The scale was turned by France, where a singular retrogressive movement of public opinion had taken place, and where even the influence of M. Gambetta in favor of an active policy in the East had been overpowered.

The proposal with respect to Smyrna was, therefore, stillborn. But the menace, though never adopted by the Powers, sufficed to bring the Porte to a sudden submission, and four days after the issue of the defiant note it was announced that Dulcigno would be surrendered unconditionally, the Sultan, however, expressing a hope that in consequence the naval demonstration would be withdrawn. When it leaked out by and by that the Powers were not in accord, and would not have proceeded to measures of coercion, the zeal for concession cooled at Constantinople, and for several weeks the allied fleet paraded the Adriatic, while the Turks were raising new difficulties about the details of the surrender and conjuring up the spectre of an Albanian rising. At last the matter was put into the hands of a resolute man, Dervish Pasha, who showed the Albanians that he could and would fight. He occupied Dulcigno without serious resistance and handed it over to the Montenegrins.

NIHILISM.

Russia was perturbed by the mysterious movements of nihilism. A desperate attempt to blow up the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg narrowly missed its object in February, 1880, the Czar's life being saved by a combination of accidents. This outrage led to the suspension of public liberty and the transfer of dictatorial power to General Melikoff. The death of the Empress supplied an additional motive for the Czar's retirement from active life, by allowing him to enter into a morganatic marriage with the Princess Dolgorouky.

ZULU AND TRANSVAAL WARS.

The Transvaal Republic in South Africa in 1876 became involved in a disastrous war with the Kaffirs, and was threatened with extermination. Appeal was made to Great Britain for aid, which was granted, and the Kaffirs were pacified and the Transvaal saved. The deplorable state into which the Transvaal had fallen through misgovernment led its chief men, however, to ask for annexation to Great Britain, and this was effected in 1877.

This led to trouble with the Zulus, with whom the Transvaal Boers had been at war, and a war between Great Britain and the Zulu nation ensued in 1879. On January 22d the British met with disaster at Isandula, but won a victory at Ginglovo on April 2d, and another on

April 3d at Ekowe. Louis Napoleon, the Prince Imperial of France, who went out to serve in the British army, was killed by the Zulus in a skirmish on June 1st. On July 4th the Zulus were crushed at Ulundi, and their King, Cetywayo, was captured on August 28th. Since that time Zululand has been a part of the British Empire.

The Boers were, however, dissatisfied with British rule, and on November 1, 1880, they revolted to regain their independence. On February 27th a small detachment of British troops was overwhelmed and nearly annihilated by the Boers at Majuba Hill, and a month later Great Britain granted autonomy to the Transvaal and withdrew her forces.

POPE AND KING.

Victor Emanuel, King of Italy, died on January 9, 1878, and was succeeded by his son Humbert. On February 7th the Pope, Pius IX, died, and on February 20th was succeeded by Leo XII.

An attempt was made by Hoedel to murder the German Emperor on May 4, 1878, and on June 2d following Nobiling succeeded in wounding the venerable monarch. These men being Socialists, the German Parliament in October of that year passed a stringent anti-Socialist law.

The Ten Years War in Cuba came to a close in 1878 on Spain's promise of reforms, which, however, were never granted.

The year 1879 began with much political agitation in France, which culminated on January 30th in the resignation of President MacMahon. Jules Grevy was chosen to succeed him, and Gambetta became President of the Chamber of Deputies.

On April 28, 1879, Prince Alexander of Battenburg was elected Prince of Bulgaria.

In the same year Ismail, Khedive of Egypt, was deposed by the Porte, and his son Tewfik was proclaimed his successor. A war broke out in that year between Peru and Bolivia on the one side, and Chili on the other. It lasted until the middle of the next year, and ended in the triumph of the Chilians, who annexed a province of Peru.

The year 1880 was made memorable in Europe by the campaign of the French Government, led by Jules Ferry, against the Jesuits and other Roman Catholic organizations, by the granting of amnesty to the exiled Communists, and by the outrageous persecution of the Jews in Germany.

CHAPTER XLII.

Stanley's Great Explorations in Africa—Vindication of Stanley—Stanley's Third Expedition—Paris Exposition—Arctic Exploration—Cologne Cathedral—Modern Inventions—Necrology.

THE opening of the African Continent to civilization, to which Livingstone had contributed so much, proceeded unchecked after that great explorer's death. His work was taken up by the man who had gone to his relief, and who, in that remarkable journey, had become infected with the irresistible fascination which Africa seems to have for all who seek to penetrate her wildernesses.

On his second voyage Mr. Stanley arrived at Zanzibar in the fall of 1874, from which point he started inland, looking for Lake Victoria Nyanza, with a force of 300 men. The journey overland was one of great hardships and many contests with the natives. He reached the lake on February 27, 1875, having in the meantime lost 194 men by death and desertion. With a boat which he had brought with him in pieces, he made a voyage around the lake and found it to be a single large lake, and not one of a series of lagoons, as was supposed by Burton and Livingstone. He found it to contain 40,000 square miles, and to be, therefore, the largest body of fresh water on the globe. His next move was westward toward Lake Albert Edward Nyanza. The result of this exploration was to prove that the latter lake was not connected with Lake Tanganyika. The hostility of the natives forced Mr. Stanley to retire to Ujiji, and at this point he determined to descend the great river discovered by Livingstone, and believed by him to be the Nile. Stanley's investigation determined the fact that the river was none other than the Congo, the mouth of which was reached by him August 12, 1877. From this long period of exploration he returned to England in February, 1878.

VINDICATION OF STANLEY

Mr. Stanley's own countrymen were for a long time apparently indisposed to do him justice. His first Central African journey in search

of Livingstone was so unexpectedly successful that his story seemed incredible to many who were unacquainted with African exploration. To every student of that fascinating subject the evidences of the substantial truth of Stanley's narrative were to be found in every page of his book, but in one respect its very truthfulness stimulated the scepticism of those who fancied that a young newspaper reporter would find it easier to say that he had been to Lake Tanganyika than to go there. They pointed out that Stanley had represented Livingstone as saying or writing things which a grave Scotch missionary would never have thought of, and they thereupon jumped to the conclusion that Stanley had never met the veteran explorer. Of course when Livingstone's last journal reached England the truth of Stanley's narrative was confirmed in every particular, and perhaps he afterward forgave the temporary incredulity of some of his countrymen when he remembered that it was the very splendor of his achievement which made it seem incredible.

In his second great journey Stanley placed himself at the very head of African explorers. He crossed the continent of Africa by descending the Congo, a task which Livingstone had failed to accomplish, and which Cameron had decided to be impracticable. This, of itself, was the grandest achievement of which the history of African exploration has any record, but it was only a part of what Stanley accomplished. He thoroughly surveyed the Victoria Lake, and nearly completed a like survey of Tanganyika. He ascertained that the river Shirneeyu is the largest affluent of Victoria Lake, and hence the true beginning of the Nile, and he established the fact that the Lualaba and the Congo are one and the same.

STANLEY'S THIRD EXPEDITION.

His third visit to Africa was made in 1879, at which time he was sent out by the Brussels African International Association, with a view of developing the basin of the Congo River. The King of the Belgians devoted from his own pocket £50,000 per annum toward the cost of the enterprise. Stanley completed this work in 1884, having established trading posts all along the Congo, from its mouth to Stanley Station, a distance of 1400 miles. A description of his labors in this field was published by him in 1885 under the title, "The Congo and the Founding of Its Free State."



1900—AMERICAN FASHIONS



1900—UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING, PARIS UNIVERSAL EXPOSITION

PARIS EXPOSITION.

A world's fair was held in Paris in 1878. Especial interest was felt in it, because of the dreadful losses France had suffered only a few years before, and there were those who doubted whether the nation had sufficiently recovered from the effects of the war with Germany to conduct such an affair successfully. The result was most gratifying. The fair exceeded in magnitude and splendor even the majestic exhibition given in Philadelphia two years before, and the attendance of visitors was nearly 50 per cent. more numerous. Never had the world seen a more noteworthy example of popular and national revival from overwhelming depression.

ARCTIC EXPLORATION.

The ill-fated "Jeannette" expedition to the Arctic regions, sent out by Mr. Bennett, of the "New York Herald," left San Francisco on July 8, 1879. It passed through Behring Strait and entered the Arctic Ocean. Its course was shaped toward the west, with the intention of passing along the northern coast of Asia. Slow progress was made, however, and on June 23, 1881, the ship was crushed in the ice. Some of the company made their way to the Siberian coast and were saved, but Lieutenant DeLong, the commander, and many others, perished.

A noteworthy expedition was undertaken in 1878 by Dr. Nordenskiöld, a Swedish scientist, in the ship "Vega," under the patronage of Oscar Dickson, a merchant of Gothenburg. This expedition made its way successfully along the Siberian coast, doing much exploring work and taking many scientific observations. Finally it emerged through Behring Strait and entered the Pacific Ocean. Thus the North-east Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific was successfully explored. The "Vega" reached Yokohama, Japan, on September 2, 1879.

COLOGNE CATHEDRAL.

The cathedral of Cologne, one of the most noteworthy edifices in the world, was finally completed in 1880. This building was begun on August 15, 1248. After intermittent labors upon it, work was in 1509 suspended, not to be resumed for three centuries. In 1848, on the six hundredth anniversary of its foundation, the body of the cathedral was opened for use with imposing ceremonies. Finally the building was

declared finished on August 14, 1880, and on October 15th, following, it was formally opened in the presence of the German Emperor and other sovereigns. Its chief spire is 510 feet high.

MODERN INVENTIONS.

The telephone and electric light, of which we have hitherto spoken, during the years 1877-81 came into general use, having been perfected to a practical degree. At the same time Thomas A. Edison and other inventors were busy devising other electrical and mechanical devices. The phonograph was among these, also various forms of electric motors for operating machinery and for propelling railroad cars. In these years the building of the elevated railroads in New York City was begun. The typewriter, one of the most useful of inventions, was first publicly exhibited in 1875, and by 1880 began to be generally used. In 1879 a transatlantic cable from France to the United States was opened for use. An ancient Egyptian obelisk, popularly called Cleopatra's Needle, was in 1880 brought to the United States, and on January 22, 1881, it was set up in Central Park, New York.

NECROLOGY.

The deaths of 1877 included those of John Lothrop Motley, the historian ; Thiers, the French statesman and ex-President, and Leverrier, the astronomer. In 1878 died Joseph Henry, the scientist of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, and William Cullen Bryant, the poet. Espartero, the Spanish Dictator, and Garrison, the Anti-Slavery leader, died in 1879. In 1880 died Pierce, the scientist, George Eliot, the novelist, and Jules Favre, the French statesman.

CHAPTER XLIII.

James A. Garfield becomes President of the United States—President Arthur—The Isthmian Canal—Star Route Trials—Anti-Polygamy Law—Chinese Exclusion—Irish-American Convention—Exhibitions and Conventions—Foreign Envoys—The New Navy—Financial Panic—Political Doings.

JAMES A. GARFIELD, of Ohio, became President of the United States on March 4th, 1881. He had been nominated after a severe struggle within the Republican party, and when he became President there was a strong faction of that party in Congress and elsewhere inclined to regard him with half-concealed antagonism. An open breach was in a few days caused by the President's choice of certain men for certain offices, and the two Senators from the State of New York, Roscoe Conkling and T. C. Platt, resigned their seats as an act of protest. Their friends sought to re-elect them, but after a long struggle failed to do so.

Meantime political passions ran high, and a disappointed office-seeker of unsound mind on July 2 shot the President in the back, in a railroad station in Washington. The President lingered for many weeks between life and death, and finally died on September 19, to the unspeakable grief of the nation. His assassin, who had no accomplices, was arrested, tried and put to death.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR.

Upon the death of President Garfield, the Vice-President, Chester A. Arthur, became President. He had belonged to the faction of the Republican party opposed to President Garfield. He now, however, showed himself impartial in his attitude, and gave the country a particularly wise and dignified Administration. One of the first and most beneficent acts of his administration was the adoption, at his recommendation,

of a law for the reform of the civil service, by basing appointments upon ascertained merit and prohibiting removals except for cause. This law was scrupulously enforced by President Arthur, and was the first of the series of enactments by which the civil service of the United States has been put upon its present reformed basis.

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL.

A French corporation had been formed for the construction of a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama. This led the Secretary of State, Mr. Blaine, to issue on June 24, 1881, a note to the Powers, to the effect that any movement of European Powers jointly to guarantee the neutrality of that canal would be regarded by the United States as an uncalled-for interference with American rights. A prolonged controversy upon this subject continued for some years.

STAR ROUTE TRIALS.

A great political and public scandal was caused by the discovery that extensive frauds had been committed upon the Government by certain contractors for carrying the mails, upon what were known as Star Routes. On March 4, 1882, eight men, including several of national prominence, were indicted in the Criminal Court of the District of Columbia for frauds and conspiracy to defraud the Government. Flaws were found in the indictment, and a new one was made, with one name omitted, and the trial began on June 1. On September 11 a verdict was rendered, finding two guilty, two not guilty, and disagreeing as to the rest. A new trial began on December 4, and on June 14, 1883, a verdict of not guilty was rendered.

ANTI-POLYGAMY LAW.

The question of Mormon Polygamy in Utah had now become a pressing one. The continued existence of this "twin relic of barbarism" was deemed a reproach to the nation. Accordingly on the initiative of Senator Edmunds, of Vermont, a law was enacted on March 22, excluding bigamists and polygamists in the territories from holding office or voting. This was the beginning of the campaign against polygamy which finally led to the renunciation of that practice by Utah upon the admission of that territory as a State.



1900—LEADING RULERS OF THE WORLD



1900—LEADING RULERS OF THE WORLD (continued)

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

During the preceding administration an attempt had been made by Congress to enact a law excluding Chinese immigrants from the United States. It had been thwarted by the veto of the President. Another bill was now passed providing for such exclusion for a term of twenty years. President Arthur vetoed it on April 4, 1882. Finally, on May 6th, a law was enacted suspending the immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years, and excluding Chinese from citizenship.

IRISH-AMERICAN CONVENTION.

Agitation for secession from Great Britain was now rife in Ireland, and commanded much sympathy among Americans of Irish birth. In April, 1883, a great Irish-American National Convention was held in Philadelphia, at which about 1600 delegates were present. A permanent organization was formed, the object being to sustain the National League in Ireland, and to promote the interests of Irish independence by agitation in the United States.

EXHIBITIONS AND CONVENTIONS.

The Arthur administration was notable for the number of exhibitions and conventions which were held during it in the United States. Some of the foremost of these may be briefly enumerated. An international cotton exhibition was opened at Atlanta, Ga., on October 5, 1881. On October 19th, the one hundredth anniversary of the surrender of the British at Yorktown was elaborately commemorated. In August, 1882, a National Mining and Industrial Exhibition was opened at Denver, Col. On May 24, 1883, a National Exhibition of Railroads and Railroad Appliances was opened at Chicago. A Southern Exposition was opened at Louisville, Ky., by the President on August 1st; the American Forestry Congress met at St. Paul, Minn., on August 9th, and the Foreign Exhibition at Boston opened on September 3d. On September 4, 1884, an International Electrical Exhibition opened in Philadelphia. An International Conference to adopt a common prime meridian was opened at Washington on October 1st, twenty-five nations being represented. On October 13th it adopted the meridian of Greenwich, 21 voting for it, San Domingo opposing it, and France and Brazil not voting. A World's In-

dustrial Cotton Exhibition was opened at New Orleans on December, 16th, 1884.

FOREIGN ENVOYS.

The first envoys from the Queen of Madagascar to the United States were received by President Arthur at Washington on March 7, 1883. In September following the first Corean envoys were also received. Another interesting incident was the opening, on September 21, 1883, of a direct cable between the United States and Brazil, when congratulatory messages were exchanged by the President and Emperor.

THE NEW NAVY.

During the Civil War the United States navy was made probably the most powerful in the world, and by the invention of the "Monitor" it revolutionized naval science. After the war, however, it rapidly fell into neglect and decay, and by the time of which we are writing it had become quite inadequate to the needs of the country. President Arthur therefore took the initiative in the construction of a new navy. On March 26, 1884, he sent a special message to Congress, asking for an appropriation of money with which to begin the much needed work of naval construction. A small appropriation was granted, and the work was promptly begun, which, continued on the lines laid down by President Arthur, has now resulted in giving the United States one of the finest navies in the world.

FINANCIAL PANIC.

The failure of the firm of Grant & Ward, of New York, early in May, 1884, was the beginning of a disastrous panic, which involved many firms in New York and elsewhere in the country, and kept business in an unsettled state for some time.

Great floods occurred in the Ohio River Valley in February, 1884, the Ohio River rising at Cincinnati no less than 71 feet. Congress appropriated \$500,000 for the relief of the sufferers.

The Northern Pacific Railroad was completed on September 9, 1883. In November, 1883, the present system of standard railroad time went into force throughout the United States.

The corner-stone of the pedestal of the Statue of Liberty in New York harbor was laid on August 5, 1884, and on December 6th fol-

lowing the capstone of the Washington monument at Washington was put into place. The latter monument was formally dedicated on February 21, 1885.

On February 26, 1885, was enacted the so-called contract labor law, forbidding the importation of aliens under contract for service in this country.

POLITICAL DOINGS.

The first of the important movements in the Presidential campaign of 1884 was the Greenback National Convention, at which General B. F. Butler was nominated for President, and A. M. West for Vice-President. The Republicans nominated James G. Blaine and John A. Logan ; the Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland, then Governor of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks ; and the Prohibitionists, John P. St. John and William Daniel. The campaign was marked by the ferocity of the attacks made upon the personal characters of Messrs. Blaine and Cleveland. Never before in American history had there been such an amount of what was appropriately termed "mud-throwing." The result of the polling was very close, the election being decided by a margin of only 1200 votes in the State of New York. Finally the Democratic candidates, Cleveland and Hendricks, were declared elected, and they received 219 and the Republican candidates 182 electoral votes.

CHAPTER XLIV.

Memorable Events Throughout the World—The Irish Problem—Egyptian Revolution—Bombardment of Alexandria—Fall of Arabi—The Soudan—Gordon to the Rescue—In Khartoum—Derivishes Closing In—Siege of Khartoum—The Relief Expedition—Hero and Martyr.

THE year 1881 presents a record of memorable and important events in almost every country in the world. In Great Britain the Irish difficulties grew to the most formidable proportions; British agriculture, already sorely smitten, had to bear the keen disappointment of another unfavorable harvest. France was drawn into the perilous labyrinth of the Tunisian expedition, while in her domestic politics the republic lost much of the character for moderation which made her, in M. Thiers' phrase, the Government that "divides the least." In Germany, as in France, and also in Holland, in Belgium, in Spain, in Hungary, and in Bulgaria, public opinion was agitated by general elections; political feuds were embittered, and the dominance of Prince Bismarck threatened.

THE IRISH PROBLEM.

The British politics of the year were moulded and colored throughout by the predominant influence of the Irish question. At the beginning of the year the opening of Parliament a month before the usual time had been arranged, and the critical situation of affairs was no longer denied, even by extreme Radicals. The character of the "reign of terror" established in Ireland by the Land League was powerfully exhibited in the speeches made by Mr. Forster in the House of Commons when moving for the introduction of the Coercion Bills, while the extracts from the speeches and writings of the leading Land Leaguers, read at the trial of Mr. Parnell and his associates in Dublin for conspiracy to prevent the payment of rents, showed clearly by what audaciously perverse teaching the Irish peasantry had been demoralized. This trial terminated, as had been generally anticipated, in a disagreement of the jury.

EGYPTIAN REVOLUTION.

A world-stirring event was the attempted revolution in Egypt in 1882, under the lead of Arabi Pasha, who had been Minister of War, and who had put himself at the head of a mutiny in the army. On the 25th of May the English and French Consuls-General presented an ultimatum to the Egyptian Ministers, demanding the temporary removal from the country of Arabi and two other leaders of the mutinous soldiery, and the resignation of the Ministry. The Khedive gladly assented to these terms, but the army and the Nationalists, not believing that the fleets would be allowed to fire a shot, and believing, with better reason, that the Sultan would not jeopardize his power as Caliph in a conflict for Christians against Moslems, were obstinate and threatening. The Ministers resigned, but the Khedive could find none to succeed them. His appeals to the Ulema, the Notables, the heads of departments, and the officers were met with insolent defiance. The army clamored for the restoration of Arabi, and warned the trading classes that unless the Khedive yielded, life and property would not be safe. The Khedive did yield, and quickened the flight of Europeans from Cairo to Alexandria, where hundreds crowded into the ships in the roads. Whether Arabi remained master of the situation or the Western Powers forcibly interfered, the danger appeared equally great.

BOMBARDMENT OF ALEXANDRIA.

In view of probable action, Arabi's preparations for resistance at Alexandria could not be overlooked. In spite of broken pledges, and orders from the Khedive and the Sultan, Sir Beauchamp Seymour reported that the works on the forts were actively carried on, and on the 6th of July the admiral demanded their instant cessation under penalty of bombardment. Protests by the Khedive and the foreign consuls were outweighed by Arabi's practical defiance, and on the 10th Sir Beauchamp Seymour insisted on the surrender of the forts at the mouth of the harbor as a material guarantee. The Egyptian ministers strove to negotiate, but the admiral's resolution was fixed, and Arabi, confident in the strength of the forts, had no thought of yielding. In the early morning of the 11th, eight British ironclads and five gunboats advanced to the attack. The Egyptian guns, of large calibre and modern construction, were well served, but in a few hours the forts were battered down or silenced, with

slight loss on the British side and with trifling damage to the ships. Next day, as the bombardment was about to be renewed, negotiations were opened by the display of flags of truce, under cover of which the Egyptian forces evacuated the town, setting fire to the European quarter and letting loose upon it gangs of reckless plunderers. Fortunately a plan for the Khedive's murder was balked, and the British bluejackets and marines quickly restored order in the streets. In a few days a small body of British troops was landed under Sir Archibald Alison, who was, however, neither able nor authorized to strike a blow at Arabi's army.

FALL OF ARABI.

The Khedive at length proclaimed Arabi a rebel, and Lord Dufferin invited the Sultan to issue a similar proclamation before joining the expedition. The procrastination of the Porte tided the British Government over a difficult crisis. Diplomatic questions were still at issue when the reinforcements from England began to land at Alexandria, on the 10th of August. Admiral Hewett had occupied Suez, to be ready for the Indian contingent, a week earlier. Sir Garnet Wolseley, the commander of the expedition, arrived in Egypt on the 15th, a day or two before the parliamentary adjournment, with Sir John Adye as chief of the staff and second in command; and General Macpherson, with the Indian troops, appeared at the Red Sea port a few days later. Sir Garnet Wolseley's plan of campaign was to advance on Cairo by the Fresh-water Canal. Though supplies were short and the railway almost useless from lack of engines and rolling stock carried off by Arabi, it was thought necessary to push on. After the repulse of an attack on the advanced British posts at Kassassin on the 28th, Arabi and his army retired on a strongly entrenched position at Tel-el-Kebir. For a fortnight the British general reserved his final blow; even successful skirmishes were not followed up. At length, on the evening of the 12th of September, orders were issued for an assault on the Egyptian position. The troops, numbering under 14,000 men, with 60 guns, began to move before dawn, and had drawn close to the Tel-el-Kebir lines unnoticed before 5 o'clock. The instant the alarm was given the British soldiery charged, and after a few minutes' struggle the enemy's intrenchments were won. The Egyptian army fled in wild rout toward Cairo, outrun by Arabi himself.

No time was lost in pursuing the advantage of this complete and crushing victory. General Drury-Lowe advanced by a forced march on the capital, which was instantly surrendered by the Governor, and occupied peaceably by a mere handful of British troops. Arabi and his lieutenant, Toulba Pasha, gave themselves up, and Cairo welcomed the victors, as they rapidly arrived, with demonstrations of hostility to the rebels. The rebellion soon died out; strong positions at Kafr-dawar, Aboukir and Damietta were surrendered, the insurgent army disbanded, and only a few of the chiefs held in custody. The Khedive returned in triumph from Alexandria to Cairo, where, September 30, the victorious British troops were paraded before him. Arabi was exiled to Ceylon.

THE SOUDAN.

The re-conquest of the Soudan from the "Mahdi," a pretended prophet or reformer of Islam, who during the troubles at Cairo had become supreme throughout the vast and vague regions south of Khartoum, was attempted in March, 1883, when Colonel Hicks, a retired Anglo-Indian officer, was despatched as chief of the staff, and with the Egyptian troops achieved, a few weeks later, a victory over the Mahdi's forces, which, however, was not decisive. Hicks Pasha later became commander-in-chief, and in the autumn advanced again upon the centre of Mahdi's strength at Obeid. For weeks nothing was known of his movements, but at length the news reached Khartoum that the whole of the Egyptian army, with the general and the other European officers, had been surrounded and destroyed by the rebels. The consternation at Cairo was profound, for not long before some troops moving near Suakim, the post on the Red Sea through which intercourse with Khartoum was kept up, had suffered heavy loss, the British Consul, Captain Moncrieff, having fallen among others. The remnants of Hicks Pasha's force were, for the most part, drawn together in Khartoum by another English officer, though some outlying posts were left to themselves. It was doubted whether Khartoum could hold out, and the difficulty was increased by the folly of the Governor of Suakim, in a mismanaged sortie.

GORDON TO THE RESCUE.

It was on November 20, 1883, that the news of the Mahdi's victory over General Hicks reached Cairo and London. For several weeks

succeeding the arrival of the news there was panic in Cairo and confusion in the councils in London.

On January 17th General Charles Gordon received at noon, in Brussels, a telegram from Lord Wolseley summoning him at once to London. He understood what it meant: those who had first claim had called him, and he obeyed instantly. At 6 A.M. on the morning of the 18th he was in London, and had prolonged interviews with Lord Wolseley. At 3.30 P.M. on the same day he saw several of the Ministers. This last interview is so important, looked at in the light of what followed, that it had best be described in his own words:

“At noon he, Wolseley, came to me and took me to the Ministers. He went in and talked to the Ministers, and came back and said, ‘Her Majesty’s Government want you to undertake this: Government are determined to evacuate Soudan, for they will not guarantee future government. Will you go and do it?’ I said, ‘Yes.’ He said, ‘Go in.’ I went in and saw them. They said, ‘Did Wolseley tell you our orders?’ I said, ‘Yes.’ I said, ‘You will not guarantee future government of Soudan, and you wish me to go up to evacuate now.’ They said, ‘Yes,’ and it was over, and I left at 8 P.M. for Calais.”

IN KHARTOUM.

On February 18th Gordon reached Khartoum and took up his quarters in the palace which had so often in past years been his lonely home, and which was destined a few months later to become his tomb. “He had come again to hold the balance level,” he told the people. “There were to be no more Bashi-Bazouks. He had not brought troops, but had come alone. He would not fight with any weapons but justice.” Then the chains were struck off the captives’ limbs in the crowded prisons; the records of unremitted taxes were burned in the palace square, and the stocks and bastinado instruments were broken up.

DERVISHES CLOSING IN.

On March 10th the situation has become still more threatening. The village of El-Fon, on the Blue Nile, is reported to be “full of rebel Arabs with banners.” The Sheikh el-Mugdi, a leader supposed to be faithful to the Government, reports most of the sheikhs in and around Khartoum to be traitors. Many of the Government clerks in the city

are also false. Berber and Khartoum will be simultaneously attacked, he thinks.

At noon on this day the telegraph wire is severed between Shendy and Berber, and on the following morning, March 11th, a large force of Arabs appear on the right bank of the Blue Nile within sight of Khartoum. The Suakim expedition was described at the time as being due to "Parliament having forced the running" of the Government. Alas, that momentous issues of life, death and disaster should be made the weapons with which the ignoble strife of party is carried on. This forcing of the hand of Government also forced the Arab hand. Before it the chances of evacuation had certainly not diminished during the first fortnight of the experiment, nay, they had steadily improved, but henceforth there was no hope.

The operations around Suakim lasted exactly three weeks. When they began, Khartoum was open on every side; when they ended, the siege had begun.

SIEGE OF KHARTOUM.

For nearly the first six months following the cutting off of communication with Khartoum we know little of what took place in the beleaguered city. During March, April and May ceaseless labor in earthworks, mines, wire-entanglements, expeditions for food, went on; there was a good deal of desultory firing and fighting. In the middle of March, four days after the Arabs first sat down before Khartoum, a battle occurred, in which a portion of the garrison was signally defeated. The two Pachas in command, accused by their soldiers of treachery, were tried by court-martial and put to death. The cry of "treason" by beaten troops is a dangerous one to listen to, and whatever may have been the faults of Said and Hassan Pachas, there can be no doubt that their execution was all too hastily decided on, and was a matter of deep regret to Gordon during the remainder of the siege.

The intention of the Arabs was evidently to wear out the patience of the garrison by scarcity of food, and by the moral effect of a continuous attack always kept up, but never pressed home to a decisive point; and there is a significant entry in the summary of the events of the first six months of the siege that Gordon wrote to Lord Wolseley which shows how well these tactics succeeded. "The square was always broken," he writes. At last the river was at its topmost height; if any effort was to

be made to communicate with the outer world it must be done at once. It is now September ; for six months the weary work has gone on ; three months' food yet remains. Is there no one coming over that vast desert to the north, whose level horizon is visible for leagues and leagues from the palace roof, where day after day Gordon and his two companions, Stewart and Power, look out in expectation ? All the plans for evacuation, government and settlement of the Soudan have long ago given place to a weary fight against odds for life. Has the world gone to sleep away there, twelve hundred miles beyond that clear-cut line of sky and desert ? What are all these armies of Egypt and of England doing ? " You have untold stores of gold, and can you not at least make it into keys to unlock this terrible silence, sending us messengers if you will not send us soldiers ? "

THE RELIEF EXPEDITION.

It was at the end of the first week in August that the English Government finally decided to send out a relief expedition to the Soudan, but for another week after that date it was still possible for them to point with truth to the conflicting counsels and opposite opinions of their advisers at home and on the Nile.

It was on the evening of August 12th that the project of a boat-expedition, first put forward by Lord Wolseley in April, and often urged by him in the succeeding months, was at length sanctioned. The race had now become a desperate one. The price that must be paid for time wasted in diluted despatch and condensed telegram, for all the windy methods of administrative delay, has to be given in flesh and blood ; and yet there is still time to win, but no hour can be let slip, no mile of all those thousands must be put off, even from sunset to the next sunrise ; and not one of the ten thousand links in the chain of this immense effort can be slackened for a single moment.

Writing on September 17th, Gordon, summing up the reports that have reached him during the previous week of the advance of English troops by the Nile Valley to reach Khartoum, says, " I have the strongest suspicion that these tales of troops at Dongola and Meroe are all gas works, and if you wanted to find Her Majesty's forces you would have to go to Shepherd's hotel in Cairo." Alas, this estimate was even too sanguine ! It is true the first infantry battalion did reach Dongola about that date, but the boats which were to carry men and food over the cata-

racts of the Batn-el-Hager were only beginning to arrive at Alexandria ; and the troops destined to form the desert column which was to cross the Bayuda from Korti to Metemma had not yet quitted England.

HERO AND MARTYR.

This is what had happened : Three hours before daybreak on January 26th the Arabs made a final assault upon the lines. Of the details of this last attack we know very little. We know that the sight of the wounded from the battle of Abu Klea, who had been brought to the camp of the Mahdi, produced a profound effect upon the Baggara and other fighting tribes of the army. These men, inflamed at the appearance of their stricken comrades, loudly demanded to be led at once against the city. The attack, delivered under a chosen leader, in the darkest hour of the early morning, was directed against the lines near the gates of Bourre and Mesalamieh.

On this morning of Monday, January 26th, the moon, just past its first quarter, set at 1 o'clock. From that hour until the earliest dawn, profound darkness wrapped the dying city and the hostile camps. It is certain that the Arabs, as they approached the ramparts, were met by the feeblest resistance. Hunger had now brought to the lowest point the spirit of a garrison never strong, but whether actual treachery added its black help to famine, or whether the wretched soldiery fell back from the parapets in panic before the first onset of the enemy, will probably never be accurately known. Once the lines were gained by the Arabs, the city lay at the mercy of its assailants. Shortly before daybreak they appear to have advanced cautiously into the town, and as the winter dawn was breaking they reached the neighborhood of the palace. Here, certain that the entire city was now in their possession, they gave vent to those shrill shouts of triumph with which the soldiers of Islam celebrate victory. It was at this hour, just as day was breaking, that Gordon, roused from one of those short and troubled slumbers which for months had been his only rest, quitted the palace and moved, at the head of a small party of soldiers and servants, towards the church of the Austrian Mission. This building lay to the east of the palace, from which it was separated by an open space of ground. Some months earlier the church had been made the reserve magazine of the town, the surrounding houses were cleared from its vicinity, and it had been silently selected

as the spot where a last desperate resistance might be maintained if ever the final moment of the defence of Khartoum should arrive.

That supreme moment had now indeed come.

Walking a few yards in advance of his party, which did not number more than twenty men, Gordon drew near the church. The short and mysterious dawn of the desert was passing into broader day; over the palm trees on the edge of the blue Nile the eastern sky was flushed with the red of the coming sun. From the lost town, still lying in shadow to the right, the shouts of a victorious enemy and the cries of a perishing people rose in deeper volumes of sound. Ere yet the little band of footmen had crossed the open space between palace and church, a body of Arabs issued from a neighboring street. For a moment the two parties stood almost face to face, then a volley of musketry flashed out at close range in the yet uncertain light, and the bravest and noblest soldier of our time was no more.

We may close the record of the years in hand with the items that Roumania assumed the title of a Kingdom on March 26, 1881; that in the same year Russia seized Geok Tepe and made other conquests in Central Asia, and that in 1884 Germany began her great work of founding colonies in Africa.

CHAPTER XLV.

Panama Canal—Various Routes Surveyed—DeLesseps' Scheme—Re-organization—St. Gothard Tunnel—The East River Bridge—Great Earthquakes—Louis Pasteur—Necrology.

THE common remark that the world is now in the Engineering Age is well borne out by the history of the four years now under consideration, namely, from the spring of 1881 to the spring of 1885. In those years engineering activity in many directions was signally manifest all over the world, and it was marked by at least three works of the greatest importance.

The first of these, as yet unsuccessful, was the construction of a canal across the Central American Isthmus. This stupendous work was undertaken by Count Ferdinand de Lesseps, the French engineer and speculator, who had constructed the Suez Canal, and the place chosen was the Isthmus of Panama. Porto Bello, or Chagres, on the Caribbean Sea, and Old Panama on the Pacific were among the earliest settlements on the Isthmus, and the route between them has been an established line of communication from ocean to ocean since the middle of the seventeenth century.

The moderate elevation of the summit pass, less than for all others except that of the Nicaragua route, and the narrow breadth of the Isthmus, caused it to be one of the earliest suggested lines for a canal, and induced many reconnaissances of the locality, including in 1827 one by Lloyd, an English engineer, but not until 1838 were any very definite steps undertaken. In that year Salamon, of Paris, who had secured a concession from the Columbian Government, organized a company to build an open sea-level canal, proposing to follow substantially the lines of De Lesseps' subsequent attempt, the project being based upon the erroneous supposition that a pass only forty feet above sea level had been discovered. On these representations the French Government five years later directed a more thorough examination of the line, which was really the first endeavor to obtain authentic information, and Garvella's surveys, which,

by the way, reported the divide to be nearly 400 feet above the sea instead of 40, have since formed the basis of subsequent projects.

The rush of gold-seekers across the Isthmus to California brought about the construction of the Panama railroad, for which the concession was obtained in 1850, and the road opened for traffic in 1855. Bringing transit across the Isthmus more prominently before the public, it invited renewed attention to the feasibility of a canal, and induced increased interest in the subject, a project and estimate for a canal with locks being prepared by the chief engineer of the railway, which he believed could be completed for from \$60,000,000 to \$115,000,000, according to the summit level selected.

VARIOUS ROUTES SURVEYED.

President Grant was an earnest advocate of a canal, not necessarily, however, at Panama, and under his direction surveys were made in 1876 along several routes by Commander Lull and Mr. Menocal of the navy. They did not consider a sea-level canal at Panama practicable, but proposed a plan for one with locks, following fairly closely the line of the railway, reaching the summit level at a height of 125 feet above the sea, and crossing the Cordilleras through the Culebra pass. The length would be about $45\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and the cost was estimated at \$96,000,000.

The next year Lieutenant Wyse, of the French navy, who had procured a concession for a French association, spent four or five months with a party of surveyors in field work on the Isthmus, examining several modifications of the proposed line, but carrying none of his surveys completely through from ocean to ocean. He reported in favor of a sea-level canal by way of the Chagres and Rio Grande, involving a ship tunnel about 5 miles in length. His estimate was only \$95,000,000, or less than Lull's for a canal with a summit level of 125 feet, whereas, of course it must cost much more.

DE LESSEPS' SCHEME.

On the strength of this report, Count Ferdinand de Lesseps conceived the idea of a conference to consider the various schemes for canals, and delegates to the proposed congress assembled at Paris in 1879. Twenty-four countries were represented by 135 engineers and scientists, and a number of routes, including those at Nicaragua, Panama, Tehuantepec, Atrato and San Blas, were discussed. De Lesseps' in-

fluence dominated the congress; and, rendered sanguine by his success at Suez, he advocated a sea-level canal at Panama, substituting an open cut for the proposed tunnel, and secured its adoption by the congress by an overwhelming vote. The original estimate of cost was \$120,000,000, subsequently increased by including the necessary harbor improvements, contingencies, expenses of financing, etc., to \$210,000,000.

Immediately after the adjournment of the congress a company was organized in France for building the canal, which secured the concession previously granted to Lieutenant Wyse, and in 1881 operations were begun on the Isthmus. The total length of the canal as projected was about 46 miles, following generally the line of the railway. It was to be 72 to 78 feet wide at the bottom and 92 to 164 feet at the water level, according to the nature of the banks, with a depth of 28 to 29½ feet. The cut through Culebra pass would be about 330 feet deep. The canal was to be completed by 1889.

Progress, however, was slow, owing to the difficulty of disposing of the shares, by which the necessary funds were being provided, but mainly in consequence of the unforeseen difficulties of construction and the unhealthfulness of the climate. In 1885 a commission of French engineers examined the work, and, reporting that the date for completion must be extended, recommended its continuation to save the stockholders from ruin. By December, 1887, when nearly \$275,000,000 had been spent, the sea-level project was abandoned and a system of eight locks decided upon, which Eiffel, the eminent engineer, agreed to complete in three years.

REORGANIZATION.

Another loan was obtained but further financial difficulties arose, resulting in the cessation of work for lack of funds in March, 1889. The receivers who acquired the property referred the technical questions involved in the canal construction to a commission selected from among the best engineers in France, which reported in May, 1890, recommending further investigation of certain vital features of the route before definite plans could be adopted.

The Government of Columbia extending the concession, a new company was organized in 1894, further surveys were made, the commission for that purpose including General Abbot of this country, and, by 1897, fairly definite plans had been decided upon. To prosecute them another

company has recently been formed, embracing a large amount of American capital and incorporated under the laws of New Jersey.

ST. GOTHARD TUNNEL.

In a former chapter we have told of the piercing of the Alps by the Mont Cenis Railroad tunnel. The success of that gigantic enterprise led, in 1872, to the beginning of another such tunnel, under Mt. St. Gothard. Work was begun at both ends in September, 1872, by hand. After April and July, 1873, machinery was called into play, and the work proceeded more rapidly. On February 29, 1880, the two headings came together, with a horizontal difference of only two inches, and a lateral difference of thirteen inches. The tunnel was formally opened, and the first passenger train was sent through it on November 1, 1881. Its actual length is nine and three-quarter miles, and its cost was about \$700 a lineal yard.

In June, 1881, an ancient aqueduct tunnel, eleven miles long, constructed for supplying Bologna with water, was reopened and put into use again.

Work on the tunnel under the Hudson River in New York, which had been begun in 1874, was suspended in 1883 after an expenditure of more than \$1,000,000.

Finally, the Arlberg tunnel, under the Alps, which had been begun in 1880, was completed in November, 1883, and trains began using it in September, 1884. It is six and a half miles long, and cost about \$500 a yard.

THE EAST RIVER BRIDGE.

The third of the great engineering works mentioned was the completion of the East River bridge between New York and Brooklyn, the greatest suspension bridge in the world. The first steps toward erecting this bridge were taken in April, 1867, when a company for the purpose was chartered by the State of New York. John A. Roebling, builder of the Niagara suspension bridge, was chosen as the chief engineer. He died before the work was fairly begun, and his son, Washington A. Roebling, succeeded to his place and carried the great work to completion. Congressional legislation favorable to the enterprise was secured in the spring of 1869.



KING OF ITALY



KING OF SPAIN



EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA



SULTAN OF TURKEY



KHEDIVE OF EGYPT



1900—IN THE BOWELS OF THE EARTH

The bridge was formally opened on May 24, 1883, with a grand military and civic display, and generally decoration of buildings in both cities. The popular enthusiasm and the enormous crowds of sightseers thronging everywhere were the greatest ever witnessed. President Arthur and Cabinet, Governor Cleveland, and many distinguished persons were present. William C. Kingsley, president of the board of trustees, formally presented the bridge to the mayors of the two cities. At night general illuminations, fireworks displayed from the bridge, open air concerts and rejoicing closed the eventful day.

GREAT EARTHQUAKES.

Earthquakes have been known in all ages of the world, but in the four years of which we are writing they were exceptionally numerous and destructive. On March 4th and 15th, 1881, the southern part of Italy was violently shaken, the isle of Ischia was desolated, hundreds of houses were destroyed, and hundreds of lives were lost. On April 3d, following, the Greek island of Scio, the birthplace of Homer, was shaken. Nearly every building on it was ruined, and 4000 lives were lost. In September, 1882, the Panama Railroad was wrecked by a shock. Ischia was again ravaged on July 28, 1883, with a loss of nearly 2000 lives.

At the end of August, 1883, occurred one of the mightiest convulsions of nature ever known. The great mountain of Krakatoa, in the East Indies, was literally rent asunder, and Java, Sumatra, and neighboring islands were desolated. Many thousands of lives were lost. Vast tidal waves were generated, which were felt with destructive force all around the globe. And the stupendous volumes of dust thrown into the air aroused gorgeous phenomena of "red sunsets" in all parts of the world for months thereafter.

Serious shocks occurred in England in 1884, and at the close of that year an earthquake destroyed 1200 lives in Spain. Finally, in February of 1885, about 700 persons were killed by another Spanish earthquake.

LOUIS PASTEUR.

The year 1884 must ever be memorable in the annals of science and of humanity for the work of Louis Pasteur. This illustrious French scientist had already won distinction for his researches into biology and the germ theory. It was he who most surely demonstrated the fallacy of

"spontaneous generation" and proved that all life must proceed from pre-existent life. He showed, too, that fermentation, putrefaction, and similar processes, were the result of the propagation of living organisms of microscopic size, and that if all germs of such life could be excluded, those processes could not take place. From this he proceeded to the still more important discovery that many of the worst diseases are caused by such germs, and that the diseases can be prevented simply by exclusion of the germs. He discovered thus an absolute cure for anthrax, one of the most dreaded of diseases, and also for a disease which was destroying the silkworms and ruining the silk industry of France. In 1884, he announced his discovery of a cure for hydrophobia by inoculation.

As a result of Pasteur's work the whole modern theory of germ diseases and the science of bacteriology have come into being. Lister, with his invaluable system of sterilization, was a disciple of Pasteur. So were the scientists who discovered preventive or curative inoculations against diphtheria, tuberculosis, cholera, the bubonic plague and other pestilences. The filtering of water, the disinfection of clothing and houses, the sterilization of milk and other foods, the marvelous researches into the origin and propagation of malaria through mosquitoes, the discovery of an antidote for snake poison, even for the cobra's bite, and indeed innumerable other triumphs of scientific medicine and surgery, are all tributes to the incomparable genius of this illustrious and sainted benefactor of the race.

NECROLOGY.

The death roll of these years included these names :

In 1881 Thomas Carlyle, Lord Beaconsfield, Mariette, the French Egyptologist, and Littre, the French lexicographer.

In 1882 J. H. Draper, one of America's greatest scientists, Longfellow, Darwin, Emerson, Garibaldi, Louis Blanc, the French Socialist, and Anthony Trollope, one of the favorite English novelists of his age.

In 1883 Wagner, the musician ; Dore, the artist ; J. R. Green, the English historian ; Gortchakoff, the Russian statesman ; Karl Marx, the Socialist ; Abd-el-Kader, the Algerian chieftain ; Turguneeff, Russia's greatest literary genius ; Mayne Reid, the favorite story teller of the boys of the world ; and Henri Martin, the French historian.

In 1884 Mignet, the historian ; Makart, the painter ; and Charles Reade, one of the greatest novelists in English literature.

CHAPTER XLVI.

Grover Cleveland becomes President of the United States—The Navy — Rock Springs Massacre — The Presidential Succession — The Chicago Anarchists—Interstate Commerce—Presidential Campaign.

GROVER CLEVELAND, of New York, became President of the United States on March 4, 1885, and was the first Democrat to hold that office since the retirement of James Buchanan in 1861. His administration marked something like a political revolution, and also the beginning of a new era in United States politics.

One of the first noteworthy acts of the new administration was to send a detachment of United States troops to Panama, to enforce the treaty right of undisturbed transit across the isthmus, which was interfered with by one of the rebellions so common in that country. On April 24, 1885, 500 United States troops entered Panama, protected American property, and arrested Aizpuru, the leader of the insurgents.

THE NAVY.

A decided change was effected in the work of rebuilding the navy. On July 19, 1885, payments were suspended on the contracts which had been made for the building of ships, on the ground that the work was not being properly done, and an investigation was ordered by the Government into the work of John Roach, the contractor in question, who then ranked as the foremost American shipbuilder. The net result of the investigation was a complete vindication of Mr. Roach. But the interruption of his business and the cancellation of the contracts drove Mr. Roach into bankruptcy, and the imputations made against his integrity so preyed upon his mind as to impair his health and send him to an untimely grave.

Despite these regrettable incidents, the work of rebuilding the navy was vigorously pressed by the Cleveland administration. New ships were built, by contract and in the national navy yards, and year by year the navy advanced toward a leading place among the navies of the world.

ROCK SPRINGS MASSACRE.

A hideous incident occurred on September 2, 1885, at Rock Springs, Wyoming. Many miners had there gone upon strike, owing to a dispute with their employers, and Chinese laborers were brought thither from California to take their places. At a preconcerted signal the striking miners turned against the innocent Chinese with incredible fury. They not only murdered them, openly and wantonly, but did so with most revolting tortures, such as skinning alive, burning at the stake, and the like. Never in the history of Indian massacres or of Chinese outbreaks against missionaries, was there a more fiendish performance. More than fifty Chinamen, whose only offence was that they were honestly working for a living, were thus put to death, and all the rest saved their lives only by precipitate flight.

The United States Government was called sharply to account by China for this hideous outrage, and was compelled to pay a handsome indemnity in cash.

THE PRESIDENTIAL SUCCESSION.

The nation was saddened on November 25, 1885, by the death of Vice-President Hendricks. This event left no one in the line of Presidential succession, as at that time there was no president pro tem. of the Senate, and no speaker of the House of Representatives. The result was that as soon as Congress assembled a bill was framed and enacted, providing that in case of the removal, death, resignation or disability of both the President and the Vice-President, the line of succession to the Presidency shall be vested in the Cabinet in the following order: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Navy, and Secretary of the Interior.

THE CHICAGO ANARCHISTS.

Worse than any mere labor troubles was the outbreak of Anarchism which occurred in Chicago in 1886. That city had long been the headquarters of certain discontented and semi-criminal organizations, composed chiefly of foreigners of recent importation. On May 4th, at a public meeting in Haymarket Square, a collision occurred between the "Militant Anarchists" and the police. Some dynamite bombs were thrown by the Anarchists as a part of a preconcerted scheme, and a

number of policemen and others were killed and wounded. Three months later seven of the Anarchist leaders were convicted of murder and sentenced to death, and one was sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment.

INTERSTATE COMMERCE.

The early part of 1887 was marked with some important legislation. On February 3d the second Monday in January was fixed as the date on which Presidential Electors should meet in the various States to cast their votes for President and Vice-President, and the second Wednesday in February was fixed as the date on which the votes should be canvassed by Congress.

On February 4th the Interstate Commerce Bill, for regulation of commerce among the States by a Federal Commission, was approved and became a law. The first Interstate Commerce Commission was appointed by the President on March 22, 1887.

During this administration a treaty with Great Britain for the regulation of fisheries was negotiated, but the Senate declined to ratify it, and the fisheries question continued to be a source of vexation between the United States and Canada. A new Cabinet office was created, known as the Secretaryship of Agriculture. A Department of Labor, in charge of a Commissioner, was also established. An interesting episode in foreign relations was the reception of the first Minister from Persia to this country.

PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN.

The Presidential campaign of 1888 was one of the most exciting in the history of the nation. Many candidates were in the field. The Democrats re-nominated Mr. Cleveland, with Senator Thurman, of Ohio, as candidate for the Vice-Presidency. The Republicans nominated Senator Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, for President, and Levi P. Morton, of New York, for Vice-President. Tickets were also put in the field by the Equal Rights (Woman Suffrage), Union Labor, United Labor, Prohibitionist and other parties.

The election resulted in the casting of a plurality of popular votes for Cleveland and Thurman, but a majority of the electoral votes for Harrison and Morton—233 to 168—and the latter were accordingly elected.

CHAPTER XLVII.

Russian Advance Toward Herat—Riel's Rebellion—Home Rule—The Queen's Jubilee—Expulsion of French Pretenders—Boulanger—Death of the German Emperor—German Affairs—In Many Lands.

THE steady advance of Russia in Central Asia was marked in March, 1885, by the occupation of Zulficar Pass, leading to Herat, and by an attack upon the Afghans at Khusk. This was regarded as a menace to the British Indian Empire, and Great Britain accordingly took steps to meet it. After some negotiations hostilities were at last averted, the British Government, under Mr. Gladstone's direction, conceding to Russia almost everything claimed by the latter in that part of the world.

RIEL'S REBELLION.

The goodwill and the fairness of the American people were tested during the painful trial to which Canada was exposed in the spring of 1885, when Louis Riel—the pardoned author of the Red River rebellion, in suppressing which Lord Wolseley won his spurs—raised the half-breeds and the Indians in the North-west Territory against the Government. The unfortunate settlers, who were unable to escape in the rigorous winter weather, were given over to rapine, outrage and massacre. The Dominion Ministry acted with promptitude and energy, and a considerable force was collected beyond Winnipeg under General Middleton, but operations were delayed by the snow and the spring floods, and Riel, with his savage allies, seemed confident that the troops would be worn out and cut off in detail. General Middleton, however, was steadily successful; Riel and his half-breeds and desperate refugees from the States were beaten and finally captured, and the insurgent Indian chiefs submitted or were hunted down.

HOME RULE.

Mr. Gladstone resigned office and was succeeded by Lord Salisbury, as Prime Minister of England, in June, 1885. A general election soon

followed, in which the Liberals were successful, and in January, 1886, Mr. Gladstone was again Prime Minister. The one great issue in British politics was at this time the Irish question, which Mr. Gladstone determined to settle by giving Ireland practical independence under the guise of "Home Rule."

Since the days immediately preceding the Reform Bill of 1832, the United Kingdom had never been in such a state of political excitement as prevailed from November, 1885, to July, 1886. It was in the former month that rumors began to get abroad that the "liberal measure of local self-government," which Gladstone had spoken of in his Midlothian speeches as desirable for Ireland, meant Home Rule.

At midwinter it was stated that he had invited Parnell to confer with him on the scheme, and to suggest guarantees for the preservation of law and peace in Ireland when Home Rule should have been conceded. Nevertheless, several of their party leaders announced that they still remained opposed to any grant of legislative independence to Ireland.

THE QUEEN'S JUBILEE.

The year 1887 is best remembered in Great Britain, however, for no matter of party politics, but for the Queen's First Jubilee (June 21), a great ceremony held to commemorate Her Majesty's completion of the fiftieth year of her reign. A solemn service held at Westminster Abbey was attended by all the royal family, and witnessed by an assembly gathered not only from the United Kingdom, but from India and all the colonies. Lord Beaconsfield's "Imperialism" still dominated his party, and everything was done to make the Jubilee a manifestation of the loyalty of the whole empire. In this aspect it was most successful. Not only did the premiers of the autonomous colonies and a party of Indian rajahs join in the ceremony in London, but rejoicings and demonstrations all around the world bore witness to the respect and love entertained for the aged sovereign in every corner of her dominions.

EXPULSION OF FRENCH PRETENDERS.

French politics were much disturbed in 1885 by discussions over the campaign in Tonquin. General Boulanger, an ambitious and unscrupulous officer of the army, began to make himself conspicuous as Minister of War, by his persecution of officers who did not agree with him in

politics. Rumors of intrigues for a royalist restoration arose, sedulously fostered by Boulanger among the Radicals, and at last the expulsion from France of the Bourbon princes was demanded. For a time the Government resisted this unjust and absurd demand, but was at last forced to yield to it.

BOULANGER.

It may be added at this point that Boulanger soon began himself to plot against the republic, and to intrigue with the expelled princes for their restoration. So flagrant did his treason become that he deemed it prudent to flee from the country. He was tried by the Senate and condemned, but, being out of France, could not be reached. He remained in exile, engaged in vain intrigues and conspiracies, until his death.

DEATH OF THE GERMAN EMPEROR.

Attention was soon diverted from these controversies by the fatal illness of the German Emperor, William I, and the alarming reports of the health of his son, who was at San Remo when his father died, on March 9, 1888. Though the Emperor William had reached a patriarchal age, his death was deeply felt by the German people. The funeral ceremony was carried out with an impressive magnificence never surpassed. The wildest hopes and fears were excited in France and elsewhere by the accession of the Emperor Frederick, in whose state a temporary improvement was visible after his arrival in Berlin. That his views in domestic policy were much more liberal than those of his father, and that he was sincerely desirous of peace became soon apparent, and a certain amount of friction arose between him and the Chancellor, threatening to end at one time in the resignation of the latter, who opposed the projected marriage between the Princess Victoria and Prince Alexander, the former ruler of Bulgaria. In these controversies the Crown Prince, who had now become the Emperor, William II, ranged himself apparently on the side of the Chancellor. The death of Emperor Frederick the Noble produced on June 16th unfeigned and disinterested grief, not only in Germany, but throughout Europe, and especially in Great Britain, which was the highest tribute to a lofty character and a noble life. The new Emperor in his earliest proclamations and speeches reproduced the spirit and the language of his grandfather, with a less pacific temper and a more outspoken dislike of German liberalism.

GERMAN AFFAIRS.

We need only notice in passing the painful and not very creditable squabbles which arose out of the illness of the Emperor Frederick, the charges and counter-charges of Sir Morrell Mackenzie and Professor von Bergmann, the publication of the late Emperor's diary, and the arrest and prosecution of Dr. Geffcken for alleged complicity in that offence. The foreign policy of the German Empire, which practically governed that of Central Europe, underwent no change, though much alarm was caused both in Austria-Hungary and in France by the visit of the young Emperor William II, soon after his accession, to the Czar at Peterhof. The German semi-official press continued to write contemptuously and abusively of Bulgaria, and the friendly relations between the German and the Russian courts were the subject of various comment. It soon appeared, however, that the "League of Peace," the alliance of Germany with Austria and Italy, was still the keystone of German policy. The visits of Signor Crispi and Count Kalnoky to Prince Bismarck were followed by the more formal and significant progress of the Emperor himself to Vienna and to Rome, where, as also in Sweden and in the South German capitals, he was welcomed with great enthusiasm. The solidarity of the interests of the three Powers constituting the "League of Peace" was emphatically asserted in these interchanges of courtesy. An interview between the Emperor and the Pope at the Vatican was maladroitly managed, either on one side or on both, and weakened the friendly feelings which had grown up between the German Government and the Roman Catholic church.

IN MANY LANDS.

Other incidents of these years must be mentioned in brief. The last weeks of 1885 saw the final conquest of Burmah by the British, and the deposition of the infamous tyrant, King Theebaw. That same year saw the creation, by international agreement, of the Free State of the Congo, under the rule of the King of the Belgians. In 1887 Germany made peace with Rome by rescinding the laws she had enacted against the Roman Catholic ecclesiastical organizations. A conflict between Germans and Americans in Samoa called attention to the dangerous state of affairs in those islands, which were under the joint rule of Germany, Great Britain and the United States.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

Completion of Canadian Pacific Railway—Earthquakes—Ship Canals—Stanley and Emin—A Noteworthy Expedition—Railroad to Samarcand—Blowing Up Hell Gate—Bartholdi's Statue of Liberty—The Great Blizzard—Necrology.

THE union of the Canadian provinces into a single federal commonwealth resulted in a marked increase of prosperity. Trade and manufactures grew apace, and important public works were undertaken. Chief among the latter was the Canadian Pacific Railway, extending across the continent, from tidewater in the St. Lawrence River at Montreal to the Pacific Ocean at Vancouver. This great work was aided by a guaranteed loan of \$12,500,000 from the British Government, by exemption from taxation, and numerous other valuable concessions. It was opened for traffic on June 28, 1886. Its length from Montreal to Vancouver is 2906 miles. It now possesses a fine line of steamships, plying from Vancouver to China and Japan, and is a strong competitor against the transcontinental lines of the United States.

EARTHQUAKES.

The earthquake season of 1883, 1884 and 1885, mentioned in a former chapter, was continued in the next two years with disastrous effect. On August 31, 1886, a great shock disturbed a large part of the United States. The city of Charleston, S. C., suffered most severely, forty-one lives and \$5,000,000 of property being destroyed. On February 23, 1887, the Riviera and adjacent parts of Southern Europe were shaken, with the loss of fully 2000 lives.

SHIP CANALS.

The great ship canal in Germany, connecting the North Sea and the Baltic, was begun in 1887. This canal extends from the mouth of the Elbe to Kiel, a distance of 60 miles, and is 28 feet deep and 167 feet

wide. It was opened in 1894 by the German Emperor in person, amid great festivities, in which ships of nearly all the navies of the world took part.

Even more notable was the Manchester Ship Canal, which was begun and completed in the same years as the German canal just mentioned. The Manchester canal extends inland more than 35 miles from Liverpool, and makes of the great inland manufacturing city a seaport accessible to the largest steamships from all parts of the world.

STANLEY AND EMIN.

The year 1887 was marked with the heroic enterprise of Henry M. Stanley to rescue Emin Bey, in the Equatorial Provinces of the Egyptian Soudan.

Emin Bey, or Pacha, as he became, was Austrian by birth. He was educated as a physician, and was one of Midhat's advisers at Constantinople. When that Prime Minister was dismissed on the eve of the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war of 1877, Emin took refuge in Asia, and finally made his way, by way of Suakim, with a caravan, to Khartoum, where he arrived in very reduced circumstances. General Gordon made him a storekeeper, and he served some time at Lado.

After 1877 he became surgeon-in-chief on Gordon's staff, serving about four years. He kept busy all this time, attending to his routine duties, accumulating scientific collections, writing elaborate papers for European societies and undertaking delicate missions to Uganda and Unyoro. He was an expert linguist—Turkish, Arabic, German, French, Italian and English being familiar languages to him, as well as many of the African dialects. When Gordon became Governor-General of the Soudan he sent Emin to rule over the Equatorial Provinces. In three years' time he drove out the slave-traders from a populous region, and converted a deficiency of revenue into a surplus. He conducted the government on the lines marked out by General Gordon, and was equally modest, disinterested and conscientious. When the Mahdi's rebellion broke out a Governor-General of another stamp was at Khartoum. Emin's warning from the remote south passed unheeded, and disasters followed, ending in Gordon's death. Emin remained at his post, neglected and almost forgotten. He had 4000 troops at the out-

set. He organized auxiliary forces of native soldiers. He was constantly engaged in warfare with surrounding tribes. His ammunition and money ran low, and, in the face of many difficulties, he maintained his position and governed the country well. The last European who visited him before Stanley's arrival was Dr. Junker, who parted from him at Wadelai on January 1, 1886.

A NOTEWORTHY EXPEDITION.

Stanley started on his expedition to relieve Emin early in 1887, but it was not until June that he was able to reach the Aruwimi. His journey thence to Wadelai was a gallant struggle against seemingly insuperable obstacles, and it was not until sometime in January, 1888, that he succeeded in reaching Emin. He found Emin and his party in a fairly good position and determined to resist the Mahdi's demand that he evacuate the provinces. Stanley about the middle of April left Wadelai to return to his rear guard, from which he had had no news, and he urged Emin to accompany him. The latter would not leave, however, so long as the country was threatened by the Mahdi. Soon after Stanley's return to the Aruwimi in August, 1888, he again made preparations for re-joining Emin, and in 1889 they marched out together, by the way of Zanzibar.

The time occupied in this expedition was three years, and the results accomplished were of great value to the science of geography. Stanley ended the expedition at Cairo in the latter part of the year 1889, and he remained in that place writing a record of the journey, which was published simultaneously in England, France, Germany and this country in 1890 under the title "In Darkest Africa." His return to England at the conclusion of this work was one continuous ovation. Many degrees were conferred upon him by the English Universities; and individuals, big and little, thronged to do him honor. He was married in 1890 to Miss Dorothy Tennant, an artist of considerable talent, of London.

RAILROAD TO SAMARCAND.

The progress of Russia's conquest of Central Asia was marked in 1888 by a most romantic achievement. This was the completion of a railroad from the Caspian Sea to the city of Samarcand, and the making

of the latter city a great railroad centre. Nothing could be more impressive to the romantic imagination than the thought of a steam railroad in Samarcand, "the gilded city of the sun," where is the tomb of Tamerlane.

In that year King John of Abyssinia was killed in a battle with the Dervishes, and Menelek of Shoa seized the throne as his successor. This incident was the beginning of a new era in the history of Abyssinia, the land of Prester John.

BLOWING UP HELL GATE.

The first blasting operations under Hell Gate, in the East River, New York, did not prove altogether successful, and another great blast was prepared. Nine acres of submarine rock were undermined, and blown up by a single explosion of nearly 283,000 pounds of dynamite and gun cotton, on October 10, 1885.

On November 10, 1885, a National Farmers' Congress assembled at Indianapolis, Indiana, and took steps which ultimately led to the organization of the Populist party in national politics.

BARTHOLDI'S STATUE OF LIBERTY.

The colossal statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," executed by Bartholdi, the French sculptor, and standing on Bedloe's Island, in New York harbor, was formally unveiled with imposing ceremonies on October 28, 1886. This monumental work of art was a gift of the people of France to the people of the United States. Its cost was more than \$200,000, which was raised by private subscription in France. The cost of the pedestal and land was about \$300,000, which was contributed in the United States. The statue is 151.2 feet high, and weighs 440,000 pounds. From low water mark to the top of the torch is 305 feet 11 inches.

A large part of Table Rock, at Niagara Falls, measuring 100 feet long, 76 feet wide, and 170 feet deep, broke off and fell into the abyss below on January 12, 1887.

The holiday known as Labor Day was first observed as a legal holiday in New York State on September 5, 1887. On September 15th a three days' centennial celebration of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States was begun at Philadelphia.

THE GREAT BLIZZARD.

The month of March, 1888, was made memorable in New York and its vicinity by the unprecedented snow storm, or blizzard, which raged there on the 12th and 13th. In this storm the temperature fell to many degrees below zero, the wind blew a fierce hurricane, and more than four feet of snow fell. The wind drifted this snow into vast piles, so that in many of the streets in New York it lay from twenty to thirty feet deep. Railroads were entirely blockaded, telegraph lines were prostrated, and for several days, business and communication were almost entirely suspended. Thirty lives were lost, besides hundreds more that were ultimately lost in consequence of sufferings during the storm, and more than \$10,000,000 worth of property was destroyed.

NECROLOGY.

The deaths of these four years included in 1885 those of Victor Hugo, General Grant, General McClellan, Marshal Serrano, of Spain, and Sir Moses Montefiore, the great Hebrew philanthropist, of London; in 1886, ex-President Arthur, Liszt, the musician, Beust, the Austrian statesman, and Charles Francis Adams, the American statesman and publicist; in 1887, Henry Ward Beecher; and in 1888, Asa Gray, the botanist, General Sheridan, Matthew Arnold, and William H. Vanderbilt.

CHAPTER XLIX.

Benjamin Harrison becomes President of the United States—Additions to the Union—Pan-American Congress—Behring Sea—The McKinley Tariff—Controversies with Chili—Italian Massacre in New Orleans—Farmers' Alliance.

BENJAMIN HARRISON became President of the United States on March 4, 1889. He was a man of more than ordinarily distinguished ancestry. One of his progenitors was Major-General Thomas Harrison, mentioned in the following entry made by Samuel Pepys in his diary under date of October 13, 1660 :

“I went out to Charing Cross to see Major-General Harrison hanged, drawn and quartered ; which was done there, he looking as cheerful as any man could do in that condition. He was presently cut down and his head and heart shown to the people, at which there were great shouts of joy. Thus it was my chance to see the King beheaded at Whitehall, and to see the first blood shed in revenge for the King at Charing Cross.” General Harrison had been appointed by Cromwell to convey Charles I from Windsor to Whitehall for trial, and he signed the warrant for the beheading of the King. The descendants of the patriot of the Commonwealth came to America soon after the hanging at Charing Cross, but the family did not come prominently into view until just before the Revolutionary war.

Benjamin Harrison's great-grandfather, Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia, was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and was prominent in public affairs from 1764 until his death in 1791, being for four years a member of Congress and three times Governor of Virginia. He entered upon his public career in 1764, soon after reaching his majority, as a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, and he took an active part in the pre-Revolutionary movements. General William Henry Harrison, his son, served his country almost continuously from 1791 to 1841, both in military and civil places. He fought the battle of Tippecanoe in 1811, was a member of Congress, a United States

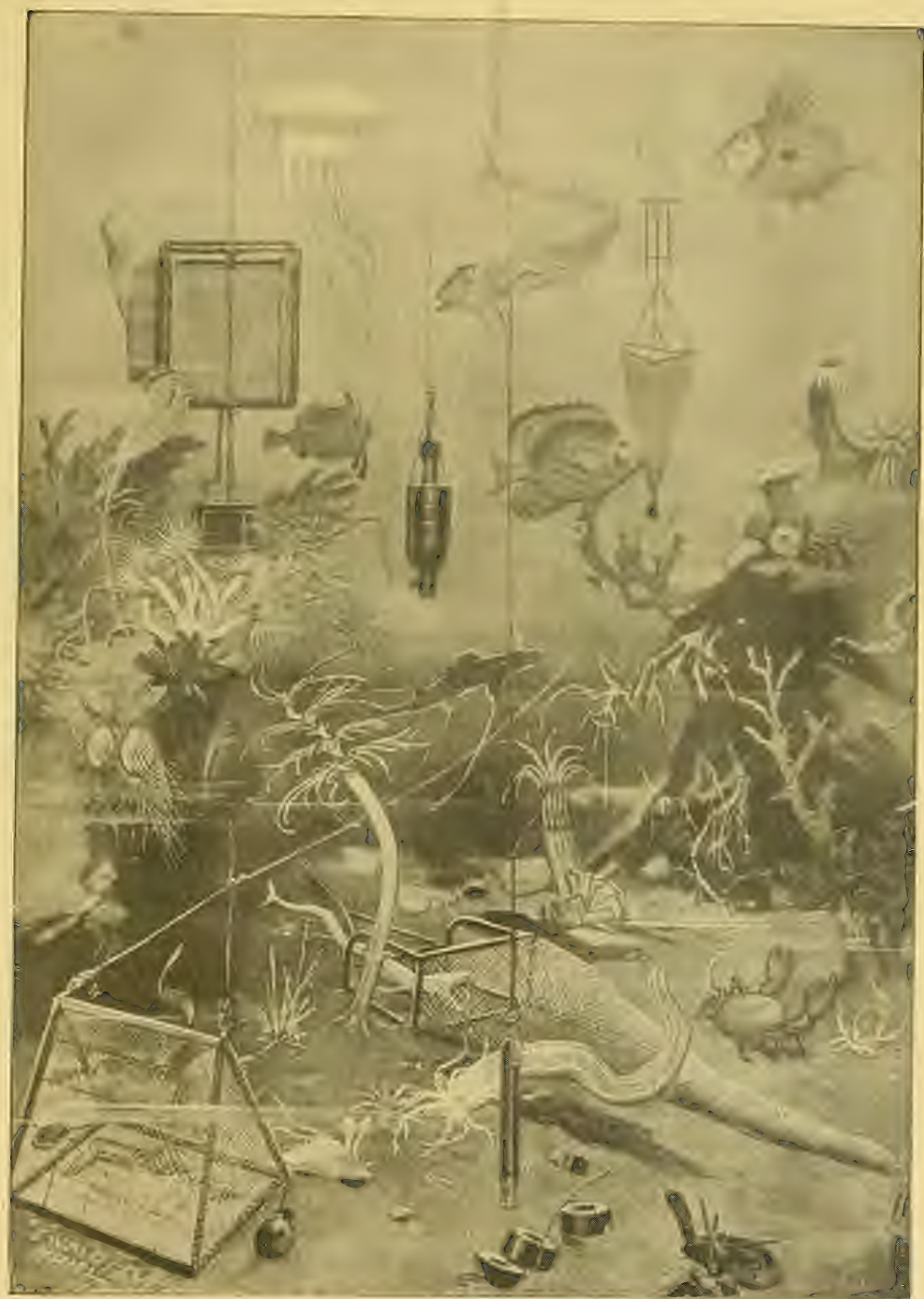
Senator from Ohio, Minister to Republic of Colombia, and for one month (from March 4 to April 4, 1841, when he died) President of the United States. His son, John Scott Harrison, who was a member of Congress from 1853 to 1857, died on May 26, 1878, at his home near North Bend, Ohio. The third son of John Scott Harrison was Benjamin Harrison, who became President in 1889.

ADDITIONS TO THE UNION.

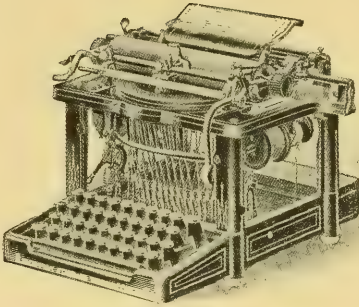
President Harrison's Administration was marked with the admission of a number of new States to the Union. North and South Dakota were thus admitted, the thirty-ninth and fortieth in order, on November 2, 1889; Montana, the forty-first, followed on November 8th, and Washington, the forty-second, on November 11th. Idaho came in as the forty-third on July 3, 1890, and Wyoming as the forty-fourth on July 10th. Meantime on May 2, 1890, Oklahoma was organized as a territory.

PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS.

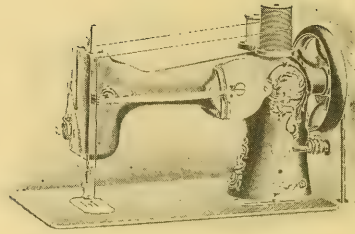
The period covered by the four years of General Harrison's Administration was marked by unusual activity and striking success in the management of foreign relations. American interests were vastly promoted and the aims of American diplomacy emphasized. The record of the Administration began with the highly important and significant meeting of the International American Conference in Washington, and ended with the conclusion of the Hawaiian Treaty of Annexation. The International American Conference assembled in Washington in October 1889, with delegates representing all the independent Governments of the two Americas, and continued in session until April, 1890. While the American nations were discussing plans for closer intimacy, another important national conference was being held for the better protection of lives and property at sea. In the first year of the Administration negotiations between England, Germany and the United States for the preservation of peace and good government in the Samoan Islands, which had been broken off in 1887, were renewed with more success, and a convention, signed in Berlin, was submitted early in 1890 and ratified by the Senate. A treaty of extradition with Great Britain, which the preceding Administration had failed to secure, was also negotiated and ratified in the spring of 1890.



1900—AT THE BOTTOM OF THE SEA



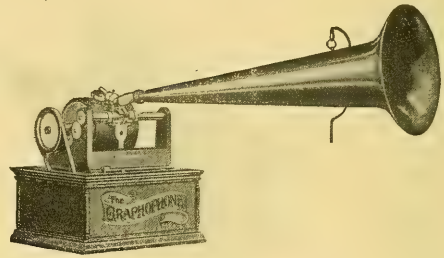
TYPEWRITER MACHINE



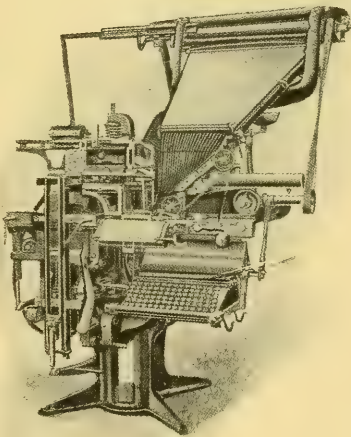
SEWING MACHINE



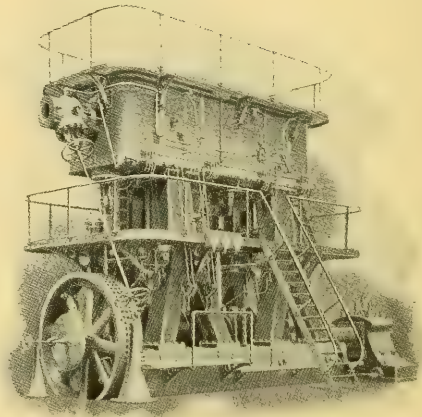
TELEGRAPH INSTRUMENT



GRAMOPHONE



TYPESETTING MACHINE



STATIONARY ENGINE

BEHRING SEA.

For some years there had been a bitter dispute between the United States and Great Britain concerning the right to take fur seals in Behring Sea. These negotiations, which had dragged along without prospect of termination for several years, were taken up early in the Administration by Secretary Blaine. A treaty of arbitration was signed in February, 1892, and soon after ratified. The Board of Arbitrators which subsequently met in Paris and the award made by it are subjects which more properly belong to a review of Mr. Cleveland's second Administration. They are therefore not treated in greater detail here.

THE McKINLEY TARIFF.

The famous protective tariff framed by William McKinley, member of Congress from Ohio, and called by his name, was enacted by Congress in 1890, and approved by the President on October 1st of that year. Under it the burden was thrown upon the State Department of negotiating a series of treaties of commercial reciprocity with Central and South American countries. The first convention proclaimed was that with Brazil early in 1891; a second was negotiated in the same year with Spain for her West India possessions, and a third with the Republic of San Domingo. Similar conventions were subsequently proclaimed with Guatemala, Salvador, Great Britain for certain of her West India colonies, and British Guiana, Nicaragua and Honduras. With the sugar clause as a basis, limited reciprocity conventions were also arranged with Germany and Austria-Hungary.

CONTROVERSIES WITH CHILI.

Events growing out of the civil war in Chili threatened, in the winter of 1891-92, to involve this country in war with the triumphant Congressional party in that republic, but the firm and vigorous assertions of this country's purpose to maintain its dignity and enforce its rights brought the Chilian Government to a speedy sense of responsibility, and the injuries of which the United States complained were redressed without question. A party of sailors from the cruiser "Baltimore" had been attacked by a mob in Valparaiso and loss of life had resulted. General Harrison's Administration secured an apology for this insult to the American uniform, and an indemnity of \$75,000 for the

families of the dead sailors and for the injured. An incident of these troubles with Chili was the flight of the Chilian insurgent steamer "Itata" from a Californian port, carrying with her as prisoner a United States Deputy Marshal who had tried to prevent her sailing. The "Itata" was afterwards seized, after a long chase, at Callao, Peru.

ITALIAN MASSACRE IN NEW ORLEANS.

In the winter of 1890-91 several Italian subjects were killed in an uprising in New Orleans against a secret organization of assassins, known as the Mafia. For a time diplomatic intercourse between the United States and Italy ceased as a result of this incident. An investigation showed that some of the men killed by the mob were Italian subjects, and the United States subsequently paid a voluntary indemnity of \$25,000. The sum was accepted by Italy as a most generous compensation, and cordial diplomatic relations were restored.

Toward the close of General Harrison's Administration an important extradition treaty with France, negotiated by the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, was ratified by the Senate, as were similar treaties with Russia and Sweden.

FARMERS' ALLIANCE.

The organization known as the Farmers' Alliance arose to great strength during this administration, and decided to take part in politics. At a National Industrial Conference held at St. Louis on February 22, 1892, the Farmers' Alliance and other bodies decided to act with the newly formed People's Party, or Populists, in that year's campaign. The latter party held its national convention at Omaha in July, and nominated General James B. Weaver for President and James G. Field for Vice-President. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland for President and Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois, for Vice-President. The Republicans nominated President Harrison to succeed himself, with Whitelaw Reid, of New York, as candidate for Vice-President.

The campaign was vigorously contested. Vast labor strikes unsettled industrial conditions and produced discontent with the existing Administration, and the People's Party drew off many Republican votes. The result was the election of Cleveland and Stevenson, who got 277 electoral votes. Harrison and Reid got 145 votes, and Weaver and Field got 22 votes.

CHAPTER L.

Boulanger Trial—German Affairs—Resignation of Bismarck—African Treaty—Triple Alliance—Revolution in Brazil—War in Chili—The Japanese Constitution.

IT was early in 1889, as hitherto related, that the French Senate tried and condemned Boulanger for his treasonable conspiracies against the republic. The immediate danger of "Boulangism" was thus averted, but French politics remained for some time in a troubled condition. Ministry after Ministry was formed and put into office, only to be defeated and forced to resign by adverse votes in the Chamber of Deputies.

At last, in 1892, came a crisis that shook the Republic to its foundations. It was discovered that of the \$300,000,000 which French investors had been persuaded to put into the scheme of constructing a canal at Panama, more than half had been stolen or used in bribing and corrupting or in paying blackmail to public men in France. It was one of the greatest financial scandals in the history of the world. Many of the foremost men in France were compromised, including De Lesseps himself, and were brought to trial and severely punished.

GERMAN AFFAIRS.

The German Reichstag passed a law in 1889 providing compulsory insurance of workingmen against disability arising from old age or infirmity. A conference was held at Berlin in the same year, between Germany, Great Britain and the United States, for the adjustment of their respective interests in Samoa, which resulted in a *modus vivendi* which lasted until almost the end of the century, when Samoa was partitioned among the powers.

An international conference on labor was held at Berlin in 1890, at the instance of the Emperor, with the ambitious aim of settling once and forever the conflict between labor and capital. It was, however, productive of little good.

RESIGNATION OF BISMARCK.

The world was startled in March, 1890, by the announcement that Prince Bismarck, the real creator of the German Empire, had resigned the Chancellorship of that empire and retired to private life. Rumors of disagreements between him and the young Emperor had been heard, but it was not supposed that they would come to an open rupture. It appeared, however, that on a direct issue between the two, the Emperor had practically told the venerable Chancellor to submit or resign, and Bismarck had chosen the latter course.

General Caprivi was appointed Chancellor in Bismarck's place, but was a mere figurehead. The young Emperor was thenceforth his own Chancellor. Indeed, the most remarkable factor in German politics was the energy with which the young Emperor impressed his personality on his own subjects and on all Europe. His almost restless activity was displayed in the frequent interchange of visits with other sovereigns. He went to England in the summer, and was much impressed by the naval review at Spithead. In Berlin he entertained the Emperor of Austria and the Kings of Italy, Sweden and Denmark, and, finally, after delays which gave rise to much gossip, the Czar. In the autumn he went to Athens, taking Italy on his way, in order to be present at the marriage of his sister, the Princess Sophia, to the Duke of Sparta, the heir to the throne of Greece, and thence proceeded to Constantinople, where he met with a splendid welcome from the Sultan.

AFRICAN TREATY.

The German and British Governments agreed upon a treaty in 1890, by which they divided the bulk of South Africa between them. Germany's title was confirmed to the vast colonies she had founded, or rather to the vast territories she had seized for colonization, and a British protectorate was established over Zanzibar. The little island of Heligoland, in the North Sea, was ceded by Great Britain to Germany.

In the same year Belgium and the Congo Free State concluded a treaty, under the terms of which the latter was to be annexed to the former at the end of ten years.

The march of Stanley and Emin Pacha from the Egyptian Soudan to the coast at Zanzibar has already been mentioned. That incident left the entire Soudan to the mercy of the fanatical Mahdists, and a reign of

terror and outrage was established there such as the world had not seen before since the days of Genghis Khan.

TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy was renewed in 1891, and thus the international politics of Europe were kept in the same channels. Meantime, in the Balkans, King Milan, who had skillfully played off the Servian parties against one another and kept a firm hold on the Austrian alliance, suddenly threw up the game early in the year 1889, abdicating in favor of his son Alexander, a lad of thirteen, who was quietly installed as sovereign under a Council of Regents. The pro-Russian party was from the outset dominant in the Regency and the Assembly; Queen Natalie, Milan's divorced wife, was allowed to return to Belgrade, and a policy of ostentatious hostility towards Austria was adopted.

REVOLUTION IN BRAZIL.

A sudden military uprising occurred in Brazil on November 15, 1889, under the lead of Marshal Deodoro da Fonseca. It was at first supposed to be aimed merely at some abuses of Government, but was soon seen to be hostile to the empire itself. Its success was rapid. The venerable Emperor, Dom Pedro II, one of the most benevolent of rulers, was compelled to abdicate and to retire to Portugal. A republic was thereupon proclaimed under the title of the United States of Brazil. Marshal Fonseca was made the head of the provisional government.

In February, 1891, the new Brazilian Constitution was promulgated, and Marshal Fonseca was elected President under it. In November of the same year he attempted to usurp dictatorial power, and the result was a counter-revolution against him, which began in the State of Rio Grande do Sul and soon involved Rio de Janeiro. Fonseca was forced to resign, and the Vice-President, Peixoto, assumed the Presidential office.

A revolution occurred also in 1890 in the Argentine Republic. President Celman was driven from office, and was succeeded by President Pelligrini.

WAR IN CHILI.

A civil war was the feature of 1891 in Chili. For some time President Balmaceda had been at loggerheads with Congress. The quarrel

came to a crisis when Balmaceda tried to usurp dictatorial power. The Congressional party rose against him, gaining possession of most of the navy. After a number of severe encounters the Congressional party was victorious. In August the Congressional army captured Valparaiso and Santiago, and a little later Balmaceda committed suicide. In October Jorge Montt was chosen President.

THE JAPANESE CONSTITUTION.

A revolution as notable as any of these, yet entirely peaceful, was effected in 1889 in the ancient empire of Japan. In that year the Emperor, or Mikado, voluntarily gave to the nation a free Constitution, with an elective Parliament and popular suffrage. In a word, he placed Japan at once on the same governmental plane with the most enlightened nations of Europe. The experiment worked admirably, and the Japanese nation thereafter made rapid progress in the arts of government and civilization.

Still another revolution occurred in January, 1893, its scene being the Hawaiian Islands. There was a popular uprising against the misgovernment and tyranny of Queen Liliuokalani, and that sovereign was deposed. The Hawaiians then renewed the action of nearly fifty years before, and made application for annexation to the United States. A treaty of annexation was negotiated in February, and was sent by President Harrison to the Senate of the United States. It was not acted upon, however, before the end of his term, and his successor promptly withdrew it from consideration.

The beginning of 1893 was marked with the French war of conquest against Siam, which resulted in the seizure by France of about one-third of that kingdom.

CHAPTER LI.

Great Storm and Disaster at Samoa—The Johnstown Flood—The Washington Centenary—The Nicaragua Canal—Various Achievements—Peary in Greenland—The Columbian Celebration—The Death List.

IN reviewing the general events of the world during the four years of President Harrison's Administration in the United States, there comes first to mind the awful tragedy of Apia. On March 15-16, 1889, a tremendous hurricane broke upon the Samoan Islands. In the harbor of Apia was a fleet of American, German and British vessels. The three German ships were driven upon the reefs and shore, and wrecked, with the loss of 96 lives. The three American ships were also wrecked, with a loss of 50 lives. The one British ship, the "Calliope," was saved by the courage of her captain and the power of her engines, for, instead of trusting to her anchors and trying to hold her place in the storm-swept harbor, she cast off her cables, and in the very face of the storm, fought her way past the rocks, through the sea-gate to the open sea, where she rode out the storm. The tragedy was illuminated by unsurpassed exhibitions of heroism. The crew of the American ship "Trenton," remaining in the harbor to be wrecked and lost, gallantly cheered the "Calliope," as that ship passed by her way on to safety. Then they gave three cheers for their consort, the already wrecked "Vandalia," against whose helpless hulk they were drifting. The few survivors of the "Vandalia's" crew, clinging to the wreck, gave three cheers in reply. Then the crew of the "Trenton" raised the Stars and Stripes to its place at the mizzen-peak, and the band, lashed to the rigging to keep from being swept off by the waves, played "The Star Spangled Banner." And thus the ship went down in wreck and death.

THE JOHNSTOWN FLOOD.

On May 31st occurred the destruction of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, by a flood. This city, with some 28,000 population, was situated on the

Conemaugh River, in Western Pennsylvania. About eighteen miles further up stream the river had long ago been dammed, so as to form a lake. This lake was $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide, and its level was 275 feet above the city of Johnstown. Heavy spring rains swelled the river and put unusual pressure upon the dam, which gave way, and the huge mass of water went roaring down the valley and struck the city with indescribable fury. The city was almost annihilated. Nearly \$10,000,000 worth of property was destroyed. The number of lives lost was 2142. No less than 99 whole families were blotted out, 124 women were left widows, and 695 children were orphaned. Aid was sent to the survivors from all the States, and from all parts of the world, amounting to nearly \$3,000,000. Each widow received \$1500, and provision was made for the payment of \$50 a year to each orphan until the age of sixteen.

THE WASHINGTON CENTENARY.

The one hundredth anniversary of the inauguration of George Washington as first President of the United States occurred on April 30, 1889. That day was set apart by Presidential proclamation as a public holiday in all parts of the Union, and elaborate celebrations were held in many places. The chief celebration was, of course, in New York, which city had been the scene of the event commemorated, a hundred years before.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

One of the most important engineering schemes of these years was the beginning of the Nicaragua canal. Since the earliest times the Nicaragua route had been regarded with great favor as the site of an isthmian canal, on account of the fine San Juan River and the vast expanse of Lake Nicaragua, which forms a natural waterway nearly across the isthmus. In 1825 DeWitt Clinton, the builder of the Erie canal, had obtained a concession for a Nicaragua canal, but failed to raise the needed capital. Ten years later the United States Congress passed resolutions in favor of the construction of the canal. In 1846 Louis Napoleon interested himself in the scheme, and in 1847 the British Government attempted to claim control over any such waterway that might be constructed. Of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which frustrated such claims, we have hitherto spoken.

VARIOUS ACHIEVEMENTS.

The year 1889 was marked with another international exposition in Paris, which was brilliantly successful. A feature of it was the stupendous Eiffel tower, one of the loftiest structures ever raised by the hands of man.

On January 23, 1890, the Women's Christian Temperance League was organized at Cleveland, Ohio. This is not, however, to be confounded with the National Women's Christian Temperance Union, formed in Ohio in November, 1874, which had grown to enormous proportions.

The completion of the new Croton aqueduct for supplying New York City with water, and the opening of the new railroad bridge across the Firth of Forth, in Scotland, were two of the major engineering achievements of 1890.

In 1890, also, King William III of Holland died and was succeeded by his daughter, Wilhelmina, his widow, Queen Emma being appointed Regent until Wilhelmina should attain her majority.

In 1891 the Russian Government began the construction of its great railroad across Siberia, from the Ural Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. The same year saw the prevalence of a dreadful famine in Russia, in which hundreds of thousands of people perished.

PEARY IN GREENLAND.

The departure of Lieutenant Peary for an exploring trip in Greenland on June 6, 1801, was unique in that the explorer was accompanied by his wife, the first woman to go on an Arctic expedition. In the following year Lieutenant Peary crossed the great interior ice cap of Greenland, from Inglefield Gulf to Independence Bay, and his return was safely accomplished after some of the most valuable explorations ever made in that part of the world.

Smokeless gunpowder was one of the important inventions of these years. It was first used in the United States in experiments at Sandy Hook on July 25, 1891. On September 19th following, the St. Clair River tunnel, between the United States and Canada, was opened with appropriate ceremonies.

We may also notice that in 1891 the Weather Bureau was transferred to the Department of Agriculture, at Washington, having formerly been in the War Department, and that experiments were made with

some apparent success in producing rain by the explosion of bombs high in the air.

On April 2, 1892, a treaty with foreign powers was signed at Washington, suppressing the trade in firearms and spiritous liquors with the natives of Africa, and also authorizing the most stringent suppression of the slave trade.

THE COLUMBIAN CELEBRATION.

As the four hundredth celebration of the discovery of America by Columbus drew near, preparations were made for celebrating it in an elaborate manner. The chief celebration was at New York, where there was a naval parade of ships of all the navies of the world, and a land parade of troops of all the nations. All over the country the day of the actual anniversary, October 12th, was observed as a holiday, and elaborate celebrations were had. On October 21st the World's Fair at Chicago was nominally dedicated, although it was not completed and opened to the public until the next spring.

THE DEATH LIST.

The death list for these four years is a formidable one, comprising many of the best known names in the world. In 1889, Ericsson, the engineer; Chevreul, the greatest of French chemists; Joule, the physicist; Augier, the dramatist; John Bright, the statesman and greatest English orator of his time; Browning, one of the world's greatest poets, and Jefferson Davis, ex-President of the Confederate States. In 1890, Dollinger, the German theologian; Andrassy, the Austro-Hungarian statesman; Tseng, the Chinese diplomat; General Fremont, Cardinal Newman, and Schliemann, the archæologist. In 1891, Kinglake and Bancroft, the historians; Meissonier, the painter; General Sherman and his old antagonist, General J. E. Johnston; Moltke, the German war genius; Grevy, ex-President of France; Parnell, the Irish Home Rule leader; Bulwer Lytton, better known to many as Owen Meredith, poet and diplomat; Lowell, poet, essayist and diplomat; and Dom Pedro, ex-Emperor of Brazil. In 1892, Arago, the French scientist; Freeman, the historian; Walt Whitman, Jay Gould, George William Curtis, Whittier, the Quaker poet of freedom; Renan, the French atheist; Owen, the English Socialist; Siemens, the electrician, and Tennyson, the greatest of modern poets.

CHAPTER LII.

Grover Cleveland Becomes President of the United States—Ambassadors—Behring Sea Arbitration—Currency Troubles—The Silver Controversy—Bond Issues—The Tariff Fight—Admission of Utah—Foreign Affairs—The Venezuela Boundary—Election of McKinley.

GROVER CLEVELAND began his second term as President of the United States on March 4, 1893, supported by a strong Democratic majority in Congress. An extra session of the Senate was immediately held, and on March 9th the President withdrew from that body the treaty for the annexation of Hawaii which had been negotiated by his predecessor. This action was based upon the belief, expressed by President Cleveland, that the Hawaiian revolution had been brought about through intrigues of Americans, and that the annexation would be against the will of the Hawaiian people. A heated political controversy arose over this matter, which continued until the end of the Administration. Mr. Cleveland stood his ground firmly, however, and the annexation project was for the time defeated.

AMBASSADORS.

In the closing days of the Harrison Administration a law was passed and approved, authorizing the President to raise foreign ministers to ambassadorial rank in all cases in which similar action was taken by a foreign country with respect to its representative here. On March 24th the President was informed that Great Britain and France had raised their ministers to the rank of ambassadors, and accordingly he appointed ambassadors to represent the United States in those countries. The same action was subsequently taken in regard to the other leading countries of Europe. Thus a new era in American diplomatic relations was opened, in which the United States occupied a place of greater dignity and of greater advantage than before.

BEHRING SEA ARBITRATION.

The differences of the United States and Great Britain concerning the fur seal fisheries in Behring Sea had, in the preceding Administration, been referred to arbitration for settlement. The court of arbitration sat at Paris, and arguments by the British and American representatives began on April 4, 1893. The decision of the court was rendered August 15th. It was partly favorable and partly unfavorable to the contention of the United States. The United States claim of exclusive ownership and jurisdiction over Behring Sea was denied. Regulations were, however, adopted, forbidding the killing of seals within fifty miles of the seal islands, or outside that limit from May 1st to July 31st. The United States was directed to pay to Great Britain such indemnity as might be mutually agreed upon between them for the American seizures of British sealing vessels which had taken place.

CURRENCY TROUBLES.

One of the chief features of Mr. Cleveland's second administration was the currency agitation, which involved a serious financial panic. On June 8, 1893, it was observed that the gold reserve in the United States treasury, usually kept at \$100,000,000, had fallen to \$89,600,000. The result was a waning of business confidence all over the country, and it was evident that only the most vigorous measures could prevent a disastrous panic. On June 30th President Cleveland called a special session of Congress, to meet on August 7th, to afford such relief as was possible by legislation. This was too late, however, to stop the panic which had already set in. In July, August and September banks all over the country, including 560 State and private banks and 155 National banks, were forced to suspend, and business was prostrated in a ruinous manner. Early in August there was such a "currency famine" that a premium of \$25 on the \$1000 was offered for small bills.

THE SILVER CONTROVERSY.

There was a radical difference of opinion as to the cause of the trouble. One view was that it was caused by the free coinage of silver, which was then being practiced to a limited extent, and that the only way to restore prosperity and fiscal integrity was to put the country on the single gold basis. The other view was that trouble was caused by the

limited coinage of silver and was to be remedied only by the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen ounces of silver to one of gold. A Silver Convention met in Denver on July 11th, and issued an address to the American people, setting forth this view of the case, and the National Bi-metallic League, with similar objects, met in Chicago on August 1st. The President, however, took the anti-silver view of the case, and favored the gold standard. When Congress met he recommended in a message the repeal of the law under which compulsory purchase of silver by the Government was made. A bill for that purpose was introduced in the House, and soon passed. In the Senate it met with bitter opposition from the friends of free silver. It was amended with a clause pledging the Government to maintain the bi-metallic system of currency. A long and acrimonious debate followed. Senator Allen, of Nebraska, made against the bill a speech that lasted fourteen hours, the longest on record in the United States Senate. Finally the bill, as amended, became law on November 1st.

This action saved the credit of the country and helped to restore normal conditions in business. But it marked the beginning of one of the greatest political struggles in the history of the nation since the slavery question was settled. Former party lines were forgotten, though old party names and organizations, were retained, and the politics of the country were divided on the silver issue; whether there should be free and unlimited coinage of silver at 16 to 1, or whether the country should be put and kept on a gold standard.

BOND ISSUES.

Meantime, under existing laws, the stock of gold in the United States Treasury was in constant danger of depletion, and its falling below the sum of \$100,000,000 had a disturbing effect upon business. The President determined to keep it at that sum, and to that end was compelled to resort to the purchase of gold by issuing Government bonds payable in gold. On January 17, 1894, \$50,000,000 of such bonds were issued, and on November 13, 1894, another issue of like amount was made. Other loans for the same purpose followed. These added to the amount of the national debt, and on that account brought much criticism upon the President. But they also accomplished his purpose of maintaining the public credit and preventing further financial panics.

THE TARIFF FIGHT.

Mr. Cleveland had been elected to the Presidency as an avowed champion of Free Trade, and his message to Congress strongly urged the abolition of the Protective system. In accordance with his views a bill was introduced into the House on December 19, 1893, by Mr. Wilson, of West Virginia, providing for a revenue tariff. This was adopted by the House in due time, and then was sent to the Senate. There it met with determined opposition, not only from Republicans but from Democrats. No less than 634 amendments were made to the Wilson bill, transforming it into an entirely new measure and altogether changing its essential principles. In this form it was finally adopted by Congress. The President declined to sign it, and it became a law without his signature on August 28, 1894.

ADMISSION OF UTAH.

The Territory of Utah had long sought admission to Statehood, and was, in point of population, entitled thereto. It had been kept out of the Union, however, because of the practice of polygamy which prevailed there. In 1893, however, it adopted a constitution abolishing and forever prohibiting polygamy, and upon that Congress, in December of that year, considered the question of admission. A bill to that end was introduced, and after some delay was passed. On July 17, 1894, the President signed it, and thus Utah became in January, 1896, the forty-fifth State in the American Union.

Of the great strikes and other industrial and social agitations which prevailed during this administration, involving the use of the United States army for the vindication of law and order, detailed notice will be taken in another chapter.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

President Cleveland sent a special commissioner to Hawaii to investigate the revolution there and the attempt at annexation to the United States. As a result of the investigation he not only persisted in his opposition to annexation, but favored the restoration of Queen Liliuokalani. Finding the latter impracticable, however, he finally, on August 8, 1894, recognized the revolutionary government of Hawaii as a sovereign republic.

Another rebellion broke out in Cuba in 1895, directed by Cubans who had been resident in the United States. Much interest in the struggle was felt in the United States, and the sympathies of this country were manifestly with the insurgents. This led to ill-feeling between this country and Spain, and the Spanish authorities in Cuba began to be suspicious of all American steamers approaching that island, and of American visitors to it. Several steamers were fired at and subjected to search, under suspicion of conveying filibusters or contraband material. Some American citizens were also arrested and imprisoned in Cuba on similar charges. These incidents gradually strained diplomatic relations between the United States and Spain, and opened the way for the open rupture which occurred early in the next administration.

THE VENEZUELA BOUNDARY.

The dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain over the boundary line between the former and the latter's colony of Guiana, which had been in existence for many years, grew more acute in 1895, and assumed a most threatening aspect. It seemed probable that Great Britain would enforce her claims with arms. Deeming such action on the part of a European Power toward an American republic a violation of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine and inimical to the peace and welfare of the United States, the President decided to intervene. On December 17, 1895, he sent to Congress a message, very strongly worded, asking for authority and for means to intervene, by appointing a commission which should determine the true boundary line. The President bluntly intimated that such action might mean war with Great Britain. Congress responded favorably, making a liberal appropriation, and the commission was appointed. For some time much ill-feeling existed between the United States and Great Britain over the matter, and there was some intemperate talk of war. The net result, however, was that Great Britain agreed to submit the case to arbitration, as Venezuela had requested, and the arbitrators established the boundary on a compromise line, much more favorable to Venezuela than the one which Great Britain was about to insist upon when the President intervened.

In January, 1897, the President concluded a general arbitration treaty with Great Britain, sweeping in its terms. This was sent to the Senate early in the next administration, when it was rejected.

An extradition treaty with Sweden was ratified and proclaimed in March, 1893, having been negotiated by the previous administration. Some changes were made in the Chinese Exclusion law. A new treaty was negotiated with Japan. An extradition treaty with Norway was proclaimed on November 9, 1893.

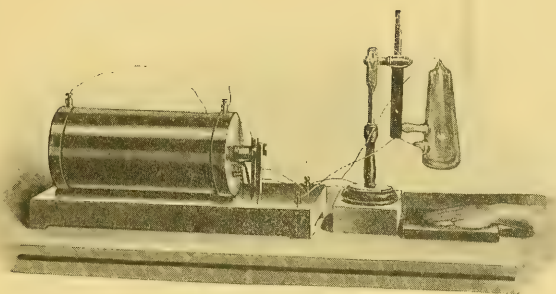
ELECTION OF McKINLEY.

The time for another Presidential election came around in 1896. Mr. Cleveland's administration had been on the whole able and patriotic. But on the silver question, as well as some other matters, he had alienated a large part of the Democratic party. The Populist party had greatly increased in strength. The Republicans had consolidated their forces and had won much strength from prevailing popular discontent.

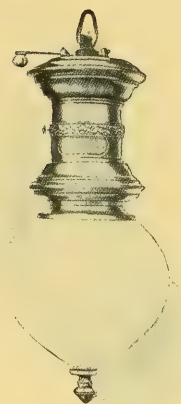
The most interesting struggle in Convention was that of the Democrats, where the issue turned on approval or non-approval of the Cleveland administration. The enemies of the administration won the day. They adopted a platform condemning the policy of the administration, and calling for the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1. On this they nominated for President William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, an extreme advocate of silver coinage, and for Vice-President Arthur Sewall, of Maine. The Populists also nominated Mr. Bryan for President, but named for Vice-President Thomas Watson, of Georgia. The Republicans, with scarcely a show of contest, nominated for President William McKinley, of Ohio, author of the McKinley tariff, and for Vice-President Garrett A. Hobart, of New Jersey, on a platform distinctly declaring for the maintenance of the gold standard of currency. A considerable part of the Democratic party refused to support Mr. Bryan and the silver platform, and put up candidates of their own—General Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and General Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. Many Democrats, however, decided to vote for the Republican candidates as the surest way of defeating the free silver movement.

The election was held in November, and resulted in a sweeping victory for the Republicans. McKinley and Hobart polled a large majority of the popular vote over their Democratic opponents. The electoral votes were 271 for McKinley and 176 for Bryan.

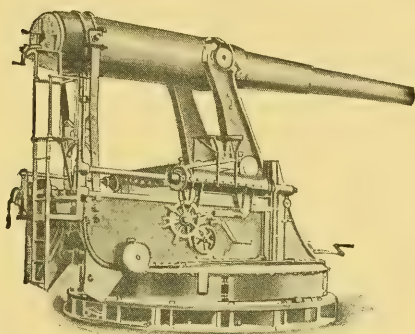
At the end of his second administration Mr. Cleveland retired to private life.



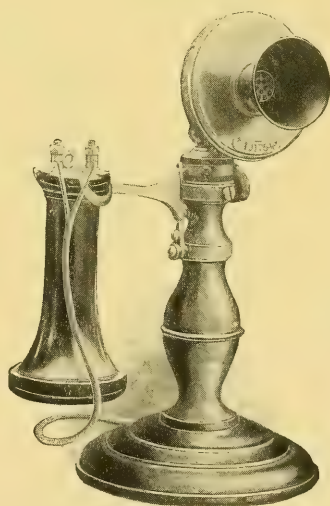
X-RAY MACHINE



ELECTRIC LIGHT



TEN INCH DISAPPEARING RIFLE



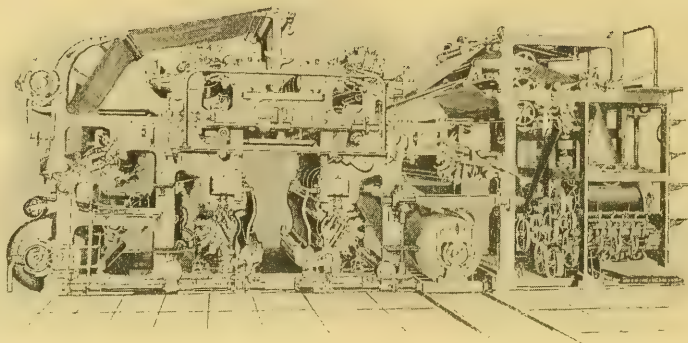
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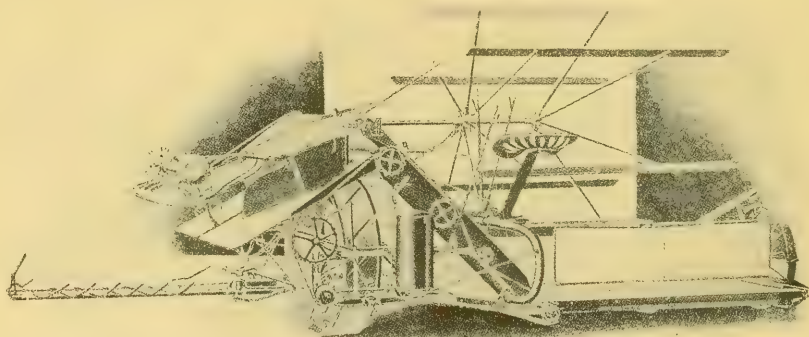
AUTOMOBILE



UNDERGROUND ELECTRIC RAILWAY CAR



PRINTING PRESS



SELF-BINDING HARVESTER



LOCOMOTIVE

CHAPTER LIII.

Assassination of President Carnot of France—French Operations Abroad —Universal Suffrage in Belgium—Italy in Abyssinia—African Affairs—China and Japan—Revolts in Cuba and Crete.

A TROUBLOUS period of the world at large now demands attention, marked with wars and rumors of wars, and the disappearance of many great figures from public life. The year 1893 saw no fewer than four Cabinets in France, with the disappearance from public life of many men smirched by the Panama scandals. The conquest of a great part of Siam was effected. In the next year other Cabinet crises occurred. Then came a hideous catastrophe. On June 24th President Sadi Carnot, one of the purest and wisest and best of rulers in the world, was assassinated by a vindictive Socialist, and was borne to the grave amid the lamentations of France and of the world.

Three days after the murder of Carnot, a new French President was elected. This was M. Casimir-Perier, a statesman of high character and ability, whose administration promised well for the French Republic. For a short time the political affairs of France seemed to be settling down into peace and harmony. Early in January, 1895, however, the Cabinet resigned, and a few days later, on January 15th, President Casimir-Perier startled the world by resigning his office. The causes of this extraordinary step were not clear, and indeed have never been fully elucidated. They were, however, generally believed to be in no wise dishonorable to him, and it has since appeared that they were connected with what has become notorious as the Dreyfus case, of which we shall hear more in a later chapter. Two days later Felix Faure, a man of admirable standing, was elected President in his place.

FRENCH OPERATIONS ABROAD.

These domestic troubles did not, however, prevent France from pursuing an active career in foreign affairs. In 1895 a regular war was waged against Madagascar, to enforce the French claims to a protectorate over that island. In September the capital, Antananirivo, was cap-

tured by the French forces and the Government dispersed. In the following year Madagascar was formally declared to be a colony of France.

Still more important was the drawing together of France and Russia. For years the French Republic had stood without an ally in Europe. President Faure, however, succeeded in coming to a mutually advantageous understanding with the Russian Government, and in 1896 formed a practical alliance with that country, which was fully cemented by his visit to the Czar in 1897.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE IN BELGIUM.

Politics in Belgium had for some time been in an agitated state, owing to the demands of the Socialists for the overthrow of the Clerical oligarchy, which was in power. In 1893 a long step toward a peaceful revolution was effected by the granting of universal suffrage, with, however, a complicated system of plural ballots.

A Chancellor crisis occurred in Germany in the following year. General Caprivi, a high-minded soldier, who had been appointed Chancellor to succeed Bismarck, found himself the prey of an unscrupulous ring of intriguers. Unwilling to make himself the tool or the scapegoat of their machinations, he resigned his office, and was succeeded by Prince Hohenlohe.

The Kingdom of Hungary was, in 1894, the scene of another peaceful revolution. In that year a number of liberal laws were enacted, especially that making marriage a civil contract and decreeing exact equality of all religious sects before the law. In this Hungary placed herself in the front rank of progressive nations.

ITALY IN ABYSSINIA.

The Italian attempt to found a colony in Africa and to effect the conquest of Abyssinia had met with little success. In 1896 it came to a disastrous crisis. On March 1st Menelek, King of Shoa, who had assumed by virtue of power the crown as Negus or Emperor of Abyssinia, inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Italian army under General Baratieri, at Adowa. Thereupon Count Crispi, the Italian Prime Minister, resigned his office and was succeeded by the Marquis Rudini. In October following a treaty was concluded between Italy and Abyssinia, under which Italy withdrew her pretensions to a protectorate over the African realm.

AFRICAN AFFAIRS.

Italy was not the only Power that had African problems to deal with in these years. In the summer of 1893 the atrocities of Lobengula, King of Matabeleland, in South Africa, brought him into conflict with the British South Africa Company, and a short war ensued. The result of it, in 1894, was the deposition of Lobengula, and the establishment of British authority over Matabeleland, which thus became a part of Rhodesia, the new British colony.

In the fall of 1895 the oppressions of the Boer Government of the Transvaal upon the British and American colonists there became so great as to provoke formal protest. This state of affairs prompted Dr. Jameson, the British Administrator of the South Africa Company's territory, to organize a raid into the Transvaal in aid of the colonists, with the intention of overthrowing the Boer Government. This mad and wicked undertaking failed utterly, and resulted only in the condition of the colonists being made less tolerable. Several of the leading English and American residents of the Transvaal were seized by the Boers, charged with complicity in the raid, and condemned to death. Their lives were spared only on the payment of enormous ransoms to President Kruger of the Transvaal.

At the beginning of 1896 a British expedition was sent to Coomassie, the capital of Ashantee, to put a stop to the barbarities practiced there, and as a result Ashantee was made a British dependency. In the same year the British general, Kitchener, Sirdar of the Egyptian army, began a formidable expedition up the Nile to retake Khartoum and redeem the Soudan from the savagery of the Mahdists. In September, 1896, he reached and occupied Dongola.

CHINA AND JAPAN.

Chinese despotism in Corea led in 1894 to intervention by Japan and a war between the two great Mongolian Powers. Hostilities began in July, 1894. The Japanese won the first engagement, at Ping-yang, in Corea, on September 16th, and followed this with a great naval victory off the Yalu River the next day. Then they invaded Manchuria, and by the end of November captured Port Arthur. Early in the next year the Japanese captured the forts and captured or destroyed the Chinese fleet at Wei-Hai-Wei, and in March occupied New Chwang.

China then sued for peace, and by the treaty of Shimonoseki, in April, recognized the independence of Corea, ceded Formosa and Leao-Tong to Japan, and agreed to pay a large indemnity in cash. These terms were reasonable and moderate. But Russia coveted Leao-Tong for herself, and accordingly got France and Germany to join her in threatening Japan with a joint attack by all three of them if she did not renounce her title to that province. Japan reluctantly yielded to this bullying. But the result of the war was to show Japan to be entitled to a place in the front rank of the world's military and naval powers, as she had already won such rank in civilization and the art of government.

REVOLTS IN CUBA AND CRETE.

The last of the Cuban revolutions was begun in 1895. Spain sent an enormous army to the island, and under the rule of the distinguished Marshal Martinez Campos, and under the savage administration of General Weyler, "the butcher," who deliberately decreed the extermination of all Cubans, men, women and children, made desperate efforts to retain her control of the island. She was unable, however, to suppress the revolt, or even to check its progress.

A revolution occurred in the Philippine Islands also in 1894, which was suppressed by the Spaniards by the simple expedient of paying the leaders a large sum of money.

An insurrection against Turkish misrule was begun in Crete in 1896 and continued into 1897. Greece decided to intervene and annex the island, and sent an armed force thither for the purpose early in 1897. But the European Powers intervened to prevent her from doing so, and established a blockade of the island. Their purpose was, however, not to uphold Turkish tyranny, but to make Crete autonomous, a scheme which was effected at a later date.

We must also notice in passing the civil war in Brazil, which raged during the latter part of 1893 and most of 1894. It resulted finally in the suppression of the insurgents.

The Russian Czar, Alexander III, died on November 1, 1894, and was succeeded by his son, Nicholas II. The Shah of Persia, Nasr-ed-Deen, was assassinated on May 1, 1896, and was succeeded by his son, Muzaffer-ed-Deen.

CHAPTER LIV.

Columbian Fair and Celebration—Quick Railroad Time—The Cherokee Lands—Centenary of the Capitol—Great Achievements —In Austria-Hungary—Necrology.

THE World's Columbian Exposition, held at Chicago, Illinois, from May 1 to October 30, 1893, was by far the greatest world's fair that had down to that time ever been held, though it was slightly surpassed in number of visitors by that of Paris in 1889. Its site occupied 633 acres, of which 190 acres were under roofs. The main building was the largest in the world, covering 30½ acres. Most of the buildings were covered externally with a white composition of plaster, cement and hemp, so that the whole fair was popularly termed the "White City." No less than fifty-two foreign countries participated in the exhibition. The total number of visitors was 27,529,400. The fair was opened with imposing ceremonies, and its progress was marked with many others. There were a World's Congress of Religions and numerous other international congresses of great interest.

QUICK RAILROAD TIME.

The improvements in railroads had made by this time so much progress that for a passenger train to be run at the rate of a mile a minute was an every-day performance. Special runs were made at much higher speed. The fastest was that of Engine No. 999, on the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad, which, on May 11, 1893, ran a mile in thirty-two seconds, on the road between Rochester and Buffalo, N. Y.

THE CHEROKEE LANDS.

A large tract of land, containing more than 6,000,000 acres, lying between Kansas and Oklahoma, was on May 18th purchased from the Cherokee Indians by the United States Government for \$8,596,736, to be added to the Territory of Oklahoma. On September 16th, following,

the tract was thrown open to settlement, and was quickly occupied by more than 100,000 persons, most of whom went in with a wild rush.

CENTENARY OF THE CAPITOL.

The centennial anniversary of the laying of the corner-stone of the Capitol at Washington was celebrated on September 18, 1893, with elaborate exercises. William Wirt Henry, of Virginia, was the chief orator of the occasion.

A furious hurricane swept the Atlantic coast of the Southern States on August 28th, resulting in the loss of more than 600 lives at Beaufort, S. C., and adjacent places. This was followed by another on October 2d, which devastated the Coast of the Gulf of Mexico and destroyed more than 2000 lives.

GREAT ACHIEVEMENTS.

The year 1894 saw the opening of the Manchester Ship Canal, in England, and of the German canal connecting the Baltic and North Seas, of which mention has previously been made. In the following year all previous records of advances toward the North Pole were eclipsed by the achievement of Dr. Frithiof Nansen, a Norwegian explorer. He went as far north as he could in his ship, the "Fram," simply drifting with the great ice-pack north of the Asian continent. When finally no further progress was to be made in that way, he and one companion took to the ice on a sledge, and reached a latitude of 86 deg. 14 min. His entire expedition returned to Europe in safety. The same year was signalized by two scientific discoveries of great interest. These were the discovery of argon, a hitherto unknown constituent of the atmosphere, by Lord Rayleigh and William Ramsay, and the discovery of the so-called X-rays, by Professor Roentgen, by means of which it has become possible to see and to photograph the interiors of solid bodies.

IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

While Americans were celebrating the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the continent, Hungarians were preparing to commemorate the one thousandth anniversary of their chief city, Buda-Pesth, the millennial anniversary of which was marked in 1896 with a great world's fair.

In the same year the famous Iron Gates of the Danube were opened—the obstructions to commerce at that point were removed and the river made a far more valuable highway of trade and travel than ever before.

On February 2, 1894, the famous old corvette "Kearsarge," which fought and destroyed the Confederate cruiser "Alabama" in the Civil War, was wrecked on the coral reef of Roncador, in the Gulf of Mexico, and was entirely lost.

The labor agitations of 1894 included the setting out of an "army" of unemployed men and tramps, under the lead of Jacob S. Coxey, from Massillon, Ohio, to march to Washington and make a demonstration against the Government for social and industrial relief. It was joined by other like bodies, and reached Washington at the end of April. Coxey and other leaders were locked up for trespassing upon the Capitol grounds, and the motley band was dispersed.

NECROLOGY.

The deaths in 1893 included Taine, the French historian and critic; Jowett, the British educator, head of Balliol College; Marshal MacMahon, ex-President of France; Gounod, the musician; Parkman, the historian; Tyndall, the scientist; and Merivale, the novelist. In 1894 the world lost Kossuth, the Hungarian liberator; Layard, the archæologist; Helmholtz, the scientist; Oliver Wendell Holmes, the poet and essayist; Rubinstein, the pianist; and Froude, the historian. In 1895 died Huxley, the scientist; Rawlinson, the historian and archæologist; Dumas the Younger, novelist and dramatist; and Pasteur, the founder of the science of bacteriology. The roll in 1896 bore the names of Leighton and Millais, the painters; Thomas Hughes, author and philanthropist; Mrs. Stowe, author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin;" and William Morris, Socialist, poet and publisher.

CHAPTER LV.

William McKinley Becomes President of the United States—The Dingley Tariff—Partition of Samoa—Intervention in Cuba—"Remember the Maine"—Beginning of the War—Manila Bay—Cervera's Fleet—Santiago—Peace Negotiations—The Philippine Insurrection—Events of the Administration—Presidential Election.

THE last presidential administration of the nineteenth century began in the United States with the inauguration of William McKinley on March 4, 1897. It was also destined to be one of the most momentous and important of all administrations. One of the earliest acts of Mr. McKinley was, on June 16, 1897, the submission to the Senate of a new treaty for annexation of Hawaii to the United States. The treaty was carefully considered for a long time, and some negotiations were had with Japan concerning the status of her subjects settled in the islands. It was finally ascertained that, while a strong majority of the Senate favored the treaty, it would be impossible to get the necessary two-thirds vote for it. The treaty was therefore abandoned, and on March 16, 1898, a joint resolution providing for annexation was introduced into Congress in its place. This was adopted by the House of Representatives on June 15th by a vote of 209 to 91, and by the Senate on July 6th by a vote of 42 to 21. On August 12th the United States flag was formally raised at Honolulu, and the act of annexation was thus made complete.

THE DINGLEY TARIFF.

A new tariff bill, in accordance with the Republican principle of protection, was framed by Mr. Dingley, Chairman of the House Committee on Ways and Means, and was introduced on March 15, 1897. It was debated at length, and received a few amendments in the Senate, but was finally adopted by both houses, and became a law on July 24, 1897.

The same year saw a renewal of negotiations with Great Britain concerning the Behring Sea seal fisheries. The negotiations continued into 1898, when the commissioners appointed by the two countries agreed upon the indemnity that was to be paid by the United States, under the terms of the Paris award, for the seizure of British vessels. The sum of \$473,157.26 was accordingly paid.

PARTITION OF SAMOA.

The year 1899 saw the culmination of troubles which had been brewing in Samoa for a long time. Civil war broke out among the natives over the disputed succession to the throne, and intervention of the three Powers followed. For a time there was some friction among the Powers, Germany being on one side and Great Britain and the United States on the other. Ultimately it was amicably agreed to abolish the tripartite control of the islands and to partition them outright among the Powers. The United States took the island of Tutuila, which contains the fine harbor of Pago-Pago, the most valuable in the whole group. Germany took the other two islands, and compensated Great Britain by cessions of territory in the East Indian archipelago and elsewhere and in Zanzibar.

INTERVENTION IN CUBA.

Mention has hitherto been made of the revolt in Cuba, and of the friction between the United States and Spain resulting therefrom. In April, 1897, the President appointed a commissioner to investigate reported cases of Spanish oppression of American citizens, and later notified the Spanish Government that he recognized a state of war to be existing in Cuba, and would require observance of the usual laws of war so far as American citizens were concerned. There was much agitation in the United States in favor of recognition of the independence of the Cuban Republic, and, indeed, of armed intervention, and various resolutions to those ends were introduced into Congress. But the President stood firmly against all such action, as premature and unwarranted. In October, 1897, the infamous Wyler was removed from rule in Cuba by the Spanish Government, and General Blanco was put into his place. But the state of affairs in the island was not materially changed.

The United States made appropriations for the relief of starving people in Cuba, and early in 1898 shiploads of supplies and a number of nurses were sent to the island. A little later relations between the two countries were much embittered by the revelation that the Spanish minister at Washington, Senor Dupuy de Lome, had written a letter to a friend in Havana coarsely reviling President McKinley and the United States Government. This led to his resignation and departure from the country, another minister being sent to take his place.

"REMEMBER THE MAINE."

In order to cultivate a friendly spirit between the two countries it was arranged early in 1898 that a Spanish warship should visit the harbor of New York, and an American warship should visit Havana. The Spanish ship "Viscaya" accordingly came to New York, and was received in a courteous and friendly way. The American ship "Maine" similarly went to Havana, and was well received. But not long after her arrival, and while she was lying in the harbor of Havana, at a spot specially selected for her by the Spanish authorities, the "Maine" was destroyed by an external submarine explosion, probably that of a mine or torpedo, though its exact nature has never been ascertained. This tragic incident occurred on the evening of February 15th, and 2 officers and 266 men were instantly killed.

The people and Government of the United States acted with marked calmness and self-control. There was little doubt that the awful deed had been done by Spaniards, with some degree of official connivance. But judgment was suspended and friendly relations were maintained with Spain.

BEGINNING OF THE WAR.

The Spanish Government, however, became less and less friendly in its attitude toward the United States. It declined to let Americans relieve the distress of starving and dying people in Cuba, and demanded the recall of the United States Consul-General, General Lee. Some of the most conservative and prudent men in the United States, including Senator Proctor of Vermont, visited Cuba and gave appalling accounts of the horrors existing there. Congress unanimously adopted a resolution appropriating \$50,000,000, to be placed unreservedly in the President's hands, for purposes of national defence. The President acted,

however, with the utmost reserve and caution, wishing to avoid war if possible, and to give Spain every possible opportunity of righting the hideous wrongs in Cuba, which were causing the whole civilized world to protest against their continuance.

Finally, on April 11th, the President sent a message to Congress telling of the terrible state of affairs in Cuba, and of the great cost and serious menace they entailed upon the United States, as well as their reproach to civilization. Congress replied on April 19th with resolutions declaring that Cuba should be free from Spanish rule, and authorizing the President to intervene. This action was made known to the Spanish Government, which immediately, on April 21st, declared war against the United States.

MANILA BAY.

Preparations were at once made for sending an army to Cuba. First, however, a United States fleet was sent to blockade the Cuban coast. This it did effectively, and it seized many Spanish ships as prizes of war. At the same time it was reported that a Spanish fleet at Manila, in the Philippine Islands, was preparing to prey upon American commerce in the Pacific, and even to attack San Francisco and other Pacific coast ports. Commodore Dewey, at Hong Kong, was therefore directed to proceed with his squadron to Manila and destroy the Spanish fleet. He set out at once, and reached the entrance to Manila harbor on the night of April 30th. He steamed into the harbor in the darkness, and at day-break lay within range of the Spanish fleet and forts. An attack was at once made, and after a few hours of fighting, the Spanish forts were silenced and the entire Spanish fleet was destroyed. Dewey did not lose a man, nor have one ship materially injured.

This brilliant achievement electrified the world. Congress voted its thanks to Dewey, and authorized his promotion to the rank of admiral, which was revived for his especial benefit. The Spanish power in the Philippines was broken down, and the islands became by conquest the property of the United States.

CERVERA'S FLEET.

Meantime the Spanish Government dispatched Admiral Cervera with four powerful battleships to American waters, either to raise the blockade of Cuba, or to attack the coast cities of the United States. Much

alarm was felt in this country until on May 19th it was found that Cervera's fleet had entered the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. It was quickly penned in there by Commodore Schley, who was presently joined by Commodore Sampson, with a strong fleet. Before this there had been some bombardment of points on the coasts of Cuba and Porto Rico by the United States ships. On the night of June 3d Lieutenant Hobson took the big coal ship "Merrimac" into the narrowest part of the Santiago channel and sunk her, thus hoping to prevent the exit of the Spanish ships. He and his six comrades were captured after this exploit by the Spaniards, but for their dashing heroism were treated with the utmost respect and consideration. At about the same time Schley bombarded and destroyed the forts at the entrance to Santiago harbor. On June 6th the advance guard of the American army was landed at Guantanamo on the south coast of Cuba. On June 22d General Shafter landed a strong army near Santiago, and the siege of that city was soon begun.

At about this time another Spanish fleet under Admiral Camara set out for the Pacific by the way of the Suez canal, to retake Manila and attack the Californian coast. The United States at once prepared a fleet, under Commodore Watson, to proceed to Spain and attack its coast cities. This menace had the effect of causing Camara's hurried return to Spain. We must not forget, either, the voyage of the "Oregon." That splendid battleship was at San Francisco before the war. It was patent that she would be needed in the Atlantic and in the Gulf more than in the Pacific, so she was ordered to hasten thither. Her commander, Captain Clark, brought her at racing speed around Cape Horn, and reached the Florida coast without an accident, and with the ship ready for instant service, a feat unapproached in the history of the world's navies.

On the morning of July 3d Admiral Cervera made a desperate attempt to break out of Santiago. He came out with his fleet at full speed, and headed toward the west. The American fleet was ready for him, and a tremendous running fight ensued. Two Spanish torpedo boats were engaged and sunk by the United States gunboat "Gloucester," formerly a pleasure yacht. The four big warships, "Maria Theresa," "Oquendo," "Viscaya," and "Cristobal Colon," were pursued by the "Brooklyn," "Oregon," "Iowa" and "Texas." After a running fight of fifty miles along the Cuban coast all the Spanish ships were driven ashore and de-

stroyed, with a loss of more than 300 men killed, 159 wounded, and 1800 prisoners. The American losses were one man killed and three wounded, with no ship seriously injured.

SANTIAGO.

A series of land battles was fought around Santiago, beginning on July 1st. At El Caney the American losses were 100 killed and wounded and the Spanish losses twice as heavy. Negotiations for surrender followed, and on July 17th Santiago was surrendered to the United States army.

On July 25th the invasion of Porto Rico was begun, and the conquest of that island was speedily and easily effected.

PEACE NEGOTIATIONS.

At the beginning of August the Spanish Government recognized the hopelessness of its cause and sought peace through the friendly mediation of the French Government. Hostilities were finally suspended at the signing of a protocol on August 12th, though some fighting occurred near Manila on the following day, but before news of the protocol arrived there.

The President appointed, on August 26th, five peace commissioners, to conclude terms of peace with Spain. These were William R. Day, of Ohio, Secretary of State; Senators C. K. Davis, of Minnesota; W. P. Frye, of Maine, and George Gray, of Delaware; and Whitelaw Reid, of New York. They proceeded to Paris and there met corresponding representatives of the Spanish Government. Long deliberations followed, the end of which was the conclusion of a treaty of peace, providing for the independence of Cuba, the cession to the United States of Porto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam, and the payment to Spain, on account of her expenditures on public works in the Philippines, of \$20,000,000. This treaty was ratified by the United States Senate early in 1899.

THE PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION.

A faction of the Philippine natives, under the lead of Emilio Aguinaldo, objected to the cession of the islands to the United States, and revived against the latter the revolt they had years before made against Spain. This necessitated the sending of a large American army to the Philippines,

and a tedious campaign against irregular guerrilla-fighting followed. A civil government was established in the Philippines by the United States early in 1900, but the insurrection of the natives, chiefly in the island of Luzon, continued and is not yet wholly quelled.

EVENTS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

The McKinley Administration saw the cities of New York, Brooklyn, Long Island City, etc., united into one great city on January 1, 1898, thus forming the second largest city in the world.

In 1897 the world was startled by the discovery of gold in the Klondyke region, partly in Alaska and partly in British Columbia, in deposits of wonderful richness, and a rush to that region followed similar to that of years before to California. In 1890-1900 other deposits were found at Cape Nome, on the Alaska coast, and another rush was made thither. These latter, however, proved disappointing.

The years of this Administration were marked with the greatest commercial expansion known in American history. For the first time the United States became the greatest commercial nation in the world, her exports surpassing those of any other land. Especially was this the case in engineering supplies, American rails, locomotives, bridges, machinery, etc., being sent to Europe, Asia, Africa and the islands of the sea.

The final census of the century was taken in the summer of 1900, and the population of the United States was found to be about 75,000,000.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

The year 1900 saw another Presidential contest in the United States. The Republicans renominated President McKinley, and, as Vice-President Hobart had died during his term of office, they nominated Theodore Roosevelt, Governor of New York, for Vice-President. The Democrats again nominated Mr. Bryan, with ex-Vice-President Stevenson as candidate for Vice-President. Various minor tickets were also put into the field, but the real contest was between these two. The chief issues were that of free silver or sound money, as in 1896, and that of "imperialism," charged against the McKinley Administration on account of its acquisition of the Philippines. The election occurred on November 6th, and resulted in the success of McKinley and Roosevelt by a large majority.

CHAPTER LVI.

War Between Greece and Turkey—Queen Victoria's Jubilee—Redeeming the Soudan—Germany in China—The Dreyfus Case—Spoliation of Finland—Australian Federation—The Transvaal War—Anarchist Murders—The Boxer Outbreak in China.

THE year 1897 opened in Europe not quite so unprosperously as 1896, but there was still trouble in the air. The Armenian question was not exhausted when an insurrection broke out in Crete, to which the Greek Government lent open support. Miscalculating the strength of the Turkish Empire, or hoping that a vigorous stroke might set all Eastern Europe in a flame, the Greeks finally declared war on the Sultan, and tried to invade Macedonia. But the Powers refused to move; it was generally thought that Greece had no right to open the Eastern question in such a violent manner, and she received no aid. Her raw army was overwhelmed by the numbers of the Turks, and fled in panic (April, 1897), so that the King had to sue for peace in the most humiliating fashion. The Powers insisted that the terms should not be too hard, for no one wished to encourage the Sultan, and Greece was let off with the cession of a few mountain passes and a fine of four million Turkish pounds.

Following upon this war, however, the Cretan question was finally settled. The island was made autonomous and practically independent, under a Governor-General of its own, and Prince George, second son of the King of Greece, was chosen to be its Governor. This step gave the island its coveted home rule, and made its ultimate annexation to Greece practically certain.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S JUBILEE.

This Eastern crisis having passed over without any further developments, the inhabitants of the United Kingdom and of the whole British Empire were able to celebrate, undisturbed by any grave trouble from without, the Queen's "Diamond Jubilee" on the 20th of June, 1897. Having completed the sixtieth year of her reign the aged sovereign had

then worn the English crown for a longer period than any of her ancestors. Her grandfather, George III, who died in the fifty-ninth year after his accession, was the only British monarch who approached her length of rule.

REDEEMING THE SOUDAN.

The Soudan expedition, which had started in 1896 to destroy the power of the Khalifa and re-conquer the valley of the Middle Nile, had met with uniform success from its start. Under the able guidance of Sir Herbert Kitchener, the commander of the Egyptian army, it had cleared the dervishes out of the province of Dongola in 1896 after the battle of Ferket. In the next year the invaders had pushed on to the line of Abu-Hamed and Berber, driving the enemy before them. In 1898 the Khalifa was to be attacked in the heart of his empire; a considerable body of British troops was sent up to join the Egyptians, and in April the advanced guard of the Arab host was destroyed at the battle of the Atbara. In August Kitchener marched on Omdurman, the enemy's capital, and was met outside its walls by the Khalifa at the head of the full force of his barbarous realm, at least 50,000 fighting men. In one long day's fighting these fanatical hordes were scattered and half exterminated; it is calculated that 11,000 were slain and 16,000 wounded before their fierce charge was turned back (September 1st). Omdurman and Khartoum were occupied, and the Khalifa fled into the desert.

The Khalifa soon afterward died. A railroad was built to Khartoum, and a college was founded in that city in memory of the illustrious Gordon, and thus the Soudan was redeemed for civilization.

GERMANY IN CHINA.

One of the most significant episodes of the year 1897 was the seizure of the important Chinese port of Kiao-Chau by Germany, with some territory adjacent to it. This was done in return for the murder of two German missionaries by the Chinese. It marked the entrance of Germany as a factor in the "Chinese problem," and led to the active participation of that Power in all subsequent considerations of the attitude of the civilized Powers toward China.

The alliance between France and Russia, which was concluded by President Faure, was now made more marked, and the existence of a formal treaty, signed and sealed, was openly announced.

THE DREYFUS CASE.

In 1897 the Dreyfus case came to the fore. This extraordinary case had its origin in 1894, when the French Government discovered that some of its military secrets were being betrayed to Germany. A brilliant young officer, Captain Dreyfus, was accused of being the traitor. He was a Jew and was rich. He was hurried through a secret trial, in which he was not permitted to face his accusers, or even to know of what he was accused, and was sentenced to degradation and exile for life. The sentence was carried out with the utmost severity. In 1897, however, certain facts came out which indicated that he had been the victim of a conspiracy. Colonel Picquart, a brave army officer, made these discoveries. He was immediately sent out of the country by the authorities and attempts were made to hush the matter up. But many eminent men, including M. Scheurer-Kestner, a Senator, and M. Zola, the novelist, took the case up, and forced it to an issue. M. Zola made so fierce an attack upon certain army officers, in a letter to the President, that he was arrested and tried, and after a mockery of a trial sent to jail. This only added fuel to the flame of agitation, and the Government, after several Ministerial crises, was compelled to recall Dreyfus from exile and give him a new trial. The result of this trial was his moral acquittal, though a technical verdict was given against him by the use of grossly unjust means. After a nominal punishment he was set at liberty. The truth seems to be that an officer calling himself Count Esterhazy was the guilty man; that some other officers, including a prominent general, were implicated with him; and that a deliberate conspiracy was formed by the men in control of the War Office and the General Staff of the army, to fix the guilt upon the innocent Dreyfus and then to stifle all investigation. The case aroused violent passions, and for a time a direct breach between the civil government and the army seemed imminent, while a furious wave of hatred against the Jews swept over France, fomented by the corrupt army ring. In the end, however, the civil authorities asserted themselves, and the management of the army was radically reformed. In the midst of the controversy, and largely as a result of anxiety and emotion aroused by it, President Faure died, and M. Loubet was elected President in his place.

A new civil code, completely revolutionizing legal procedure, was adopted in Germany in 1898, to go into effect at the beginning of the

twentieth century—one of the most important developments of jurisprudence the world had seen in the hundred years.

SPOILIATION OF FINLAND.

A deplorable incident of 1898 was the spoliation of Finland by Russia. That country had been for nearly a hundred years subject to the Russian crown, but autonomous in local affairs under a constitution of its own. It was the most loyal and by far the most enlightened part of the Czar's dominions. But the Czar, by a ruthless decree, abolished its constitution and reduced it to the rank of an ordinary Russian province. The newspaper press was suppressed, the use of the Finnish language in public matters forbidden, the schools put under a Russian censorship, and the whole country treated as Poland had been at the conquest of the latter. The world cried out in protest against this unsurpassed crime, but in vain. The Finns were helpless, and their only relief was in flight. A wholesale exodus of them began to the United States, Canada and other countries, and though forbidden by the Czar this movement bids fair to depopulate the land.

AUSTRALIAN FEDERATION.

The question of uniting the various Australian colonies in a single nation, after the fashion of Canada, had long been considered. A practical plan was adopted in 1899, and the union of the colonies in the "Commonwealth of Australia" was effected, to go into actual force on the first day of the new century. The constitution adopted was modelled very closely after that of the United States. This act of federation did not separate Australia from the British Empire, but rather made the union all the closer.

THE TRANSVAAL WAR.

In the spring and summer of 1899 the dispute between Great Britain and the Transvaal, over the latter's treatment of British colonists, became more and more heated. It culminated in a sudden declaration of war by the Transvaal and the Orange River Free State—these two having formed an alliance. The Boer armies quickly overran Natal and a part of Cape Colony, where the British were totally unprepared to meet them, and strove to raise all the Dutch population of the Cape against British rule, "drive the British into the sea," and make all South

Africa a purely Dutch confederation. The towns of Ladysmith, Kimberley and Mafeking were besieged by overwhelming forces of Boers, and for a time things looked dark for the British Empire in Africa.

The British Government quickly rose to meet the occasion. An army of more than 200,000 men was organized and hurried to the scene, the colonies in all parts of the world vying with each other in the zeal and generosity with which they sent regiments to aid the mother country. Finally, after other leaders had failed, Lord Roberts, the hero of the Afghan war, was put in command. The siege of Kimberley was raised. A large Boer army under General Cronje was captured. The siege of Ladysmith was raised. Finally Mafeking, after one of the most stubborn and heroic defences in history, was also rescued. The war was then transferred to the soil of the two Boer States. The Orange State was soon conquered and annexed to the British Empire, and in the summer of 1900, before the war had been in progress a year, the Transvaal shared its fate. President Kruger, of the Transvaal, fled to Europe, and the war ended with the addition of two fine provinces to the British Empire, and the consolidation of all South Africa under the British flag.

ANARCHIST MURDERS.

The assassinations of the Empress Elizabeth of Austria in 1898, and of King Humbert of Italy in 1900, by Socialists of Anarchist proclivities, are to be recorded. Both these shocking crimes were committed simply for the sake of killing a ruler, for it was universally conceded that the careers of both victims had been free from reproach.

In the spring of 1899 a Peace Congress met at The Hague, at the invitation of the Emperor of Russia, in which practically all the nations of the world were represented. After long consideration it adopted a scheme providing for a permanent international court of arbitration and some other rules relating to intervention, mediation, etc., which were accepted by most of the Powers, and which bid fair to go far toward lessening the dangers of war.

THE BOXER OUTBREAK IN CHINA.

Early in the summer of 1900 a great insurrection against missionaries and all foreigners arose in China. The Chinese Government, fearful for its own safety, let the rebels have their own way, and even encouraged

them. The foreign legations at Peking were besieged for weeks by a bloodthirsty mob, and all communication with the outside world was cut off. Meantime all over the empire Christian missionaries and native converts were massacred with revolting tortures.

After much delay the various Powers interested assembled a relief force at Taku, and, urged to action by the vigorous leadership of the United States, sent it inland to the rescue of the legations. Tien-Tsin was captured after a sharp fight, and thereafter little Chinese opposition was encountered. Peking was reached and the legations were rescued. The German Minister and some other foreigners had, however, been murdered. The foreign troops then indulged in an orgie of looting, at both Peking and Tien-Tsin, in which the Americans happily did not participate. The Russians further disgraced civilization by committing wholesale massacres of thousands of inoffensive and defenceless Chinese, including women and children, often torturing them in a most savage manner. More than 7000 were thus slaughtered at once in a single town in Manchuria. A Russian army was sent in to effect the conquest and annexation of Manchuria. A large international army, of German, French, British and other troops, but including no Americans, was organized and stationed at Peking, under the command of the German Field Marshal, Count von Waldersee, with the apparent intention of proceeding to the at least partial conquest and partition of the Chinese Empire.

The nineteenth century thus came to a close with Great Britain triumphant in South Africa, and with the European Powers at peace among themselves and apparently uniting for the partition of the Chinese Empire.

CHAPTER LVII.

Rudyard Kipling—Electrical Appliances—The Germ Theory—Liquid Air—Rapid Transit—Sewage Disposal—Polar Exploration—The Crew—Objects of the Expedition—The Galveston Flood—The Death Roll.

THE last four years of the century were not marked with many great advances in science and literature, though they saw the development of various earlier movements to full fruition. A great world's fair was held in Paris in 1900, at which were displayed the latest achievements of human genius and skill.

The chief literary name which we have here to mention is that of Rudyard Kipling. He had some years before established his place firmly among the best writers of the day. But, by the publication of his unique "Jungle Books," in 1896, and his sublime poem "Recessional," in 1897, he won easily the foremost rank among the rising authors of the closing century.

ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES.

Each year saw some new development of electrical science and some new harnessing of the mysterious fluid to do the works of man. Professor Marconi brought forward the often-tried system of wireless telegraphy, and succeeded in putting it practically to work. Electricity was used more and more as a motive power, and began to supplant steam on many railroads.

In 1899-1900 electricity, as well as steam, compressed air and other forces were successfully employed for the propulsion of vehicles, from the lightest pleasure carriages to heavy trucks and drays, thus dispensing with horses.

The submarine boats invented by J. P. Holland, of New York, M. Zede, of France, and others, were in these years found to be practical, and the navies of these and other nations began to adopt them as a part of their effective force.

THE GERM THEORY.

The germ theory of disease, of which the illustrious Pasteur was the chief founder, continued to be developed, with increasing benefit to

the human race. Yellow fever, Asiatic cholera, the bubonic plague, malaria and many other diseases were found to be produced by specific germs, and thus the way to the cure and prevention of them was opened. Methods of inoculation against some of these diseases were discovered, and proved to be largely efficacious. One of the most extraordinary discoveries was that the germs of malaria are propagated by a certain kind of mosquitoes, just as the bubonic plague is chiefly spread by rats. At the end of the century it seems quite probable that Pasteur's great prophecy will be fulfilled—that we shall cause all germ diseases to disappear from the world.

LIQUID AIR.

An interesting invention, and one which promises important results in some future time, is that of the liquefaction of the atmosphere. This was first demonstrated by Professor Dewar, of the Royal Society, in London, but has since been commonly practiced by various methods. Liquid air is a clear fluid, of an inconceivable degree of cold. It is thought that it will in time be of great value for refrigerating purposes, for the storage of power and many other uses. As yet, however, no practical application of it has been made.

RAPID TRANSIT.

The vexing problems of passenger transit in large cities has been largely solved by the successful introduction of electric traction. The cable car succeeded the horse car, and the electric car has now made the cable obsolete. The last-named system, moreover, by banishing the smoke, heat, etc., of steam locomotives, has made the use of underground railroads feasible. The last year of the century saw the beginning of a vast system of rapid transit in New York City by means of underground electric roads, including a tunnel under the East River to Brooklyn.

SEWAGE DISPOSAL.

Scarcely less troublesome in former years was the question of sewage disposal. The last few years have seen a strong revulsion against the practice of simply pouring it into the nearest water-course. Sewage farms and rendering works are now increasing in number, where the waste products of cities are utilized in a manner that is at once inoffensive

and highly profitable. Thus all the sewage of Paris and Berlin is disposed of, and the same rational and economical system is coming more and more into favor in the United States.

POLAR EXPLORATION.

During these last four years several expeditions have been at work in Antarctic regions, but the results of their labors are not yet fully known. The year 1900 was signalized by a notable achievement in the Arctic regions, in which Nansen's advance toward the North Pole was surpassed. This was done by the Duke of the Abruzzi, a kinsman of the King of Italy, who had previously distinguished himself by his ascent of Mount St. Elias. He set out on June 12, 1899, in the "Stella Polare." This was a small vessel, some twenty yards in length, and was originally a whaling-boat. She had previously been used by Nansen in his Greenland expedition. She was specially fitted out for the present purpose under the personal supervision of the Duke, who looked after the minutest details, even the food placed on board passing through his own hands. Parts of the vessel were remodelled with a view to resisting the impact of the ice. She remained a sailing craft, but small engines were introduced with a speed capacity of five miles an hour, so that progress could be made in any weather. The engines were also intended for heating purposes.

THE CREW.

The crew comprised Captain Everson and ten Norwegian sailors, who were selected as best adapted to the requirements of the Arctic climate, two Italian seamen of exceptional physical strength to look after the sleighing arrangements, and four Alpine guides. The latter were a new feature in enterprises of this kind, and they proved a great success, although Nansen himself expressed the opinion that they would be practically useless, the character of the Polar ice being quite different from that found in their native mountains. The chief of the guides, Pettignex, is one of the best-known and most experienced in the Val d'Aosta. The Duke's colleagues were Captain Cagni, of the Italian Marines, and a Piedmontese, and Dr. Count Quirini, who belongs to an ancient Venetian family. Both these gentlemen accompanied the Duke throughout his Alaska explorations, which have been recently described by Dr. Filippi.

OBJECTS OF THE EXPEDITION.

The principal end the Duke of the Abruzzi had in view was to penetrate the Arctic region farther even than Nansen had gone. The highest latitude reached was 86 deg. 33 min., or nineteen geographical miles farther north than Nansen's "farthest north."

THE GALVESTON FLOOD.

The last year of the century was marked with one of the most dreadful wholesale tragedies on record. This was the practical destruction of the city of Galveston, Texas, by a flood, on September 8 and 9, 1900. A violent tropical storm arose on September 8, with a wind that reached a velocity of probably one hundred miles an hour. The instruments recorded eighty-four miles an hour before they were blown away. The waters of the bay on the one side and of the Gulf of Mexico on the other were piled up in stupendous waves and swept over the doomed city. Fully three-fourths of the city was reduced to ruins. The actual loss of life will never be known, as thousands of bodies were swept out to sea and never were recovered and identified. It is known, however, that nearly if not quite eight thousand persons perished. About ten thousand more were made homeless, and as the water works, lighting works, etc., of the place were destroyed, their plight was pitiable. The losses on property aggregated about \$30,000,000. Severe losses of life and property were also suffered by many other cities and towns in that part of Texas. The whole nation, and indeed many foreign lands, hastened to give all possible relief, and a vast sum was soon raised for the benefit of the stricken people, and the work of rebuilding the city was manfully begun.

THE DEATH ROLL.

The deaths of these last four years of the century include those of Sylvester, the English mathematician ; Brahms, the musician ; Jean Ingelow, the poet ; Mrs. Oliphant, the novelist and historian ; Vice-President Hobart of the United States ; King Humbert of Italy ; Henry George, the Socialist and "single tax" advocate ; Daudet, the novelist ; Bismarck and Gladstone.

So ends the nineteenth century, of which we may in closing recall the words of Mr. Balfour, the British statesman and philosopher, who ranks it the greatest century of recorded time in the progress of science, which means human knowledge and civilization :

"In the last hundred years the world has seen great wars, great national and social upheavals, great religious movements, great economic changes. Literature and art have had their triumphs, and have permanently enriched the intellectual inheritance of our race. Yet, large as is the space which subjects like this legitimately fill in our thoughts, much as they will occupy the future historian, it is not among these that I seek for the most important and most fundamental differences which separate the present from preceding ages. Rather is this to be found in the cumulative products of scientific research, to which no other period offers a precedent or a parallel. No single discovery, it may be, can be compared in its results to that of Copernicus ; no single discoverer can be compared in genius to Newton. But in their total effects the advances made by the nineteenth century are not to be matched. Not only is the surprising increase of knowledge new, but the use to which it has been put is new also. The growth of industrial invention is not a fact we are permitted to forget. We do, however, sometimes forget how much of it is due to a close connection between theoretic knowledge and its utilitarian application, which, in its degree, is altogether unexampled in the history of mankind. I suppose that at this moment, if we were allowed a vision of the embryonic forces which are predestined most potently to affect the future of mankind, we should have to look for them not in the legislature nor in the press, nor on the platform ; not in the schemes of practical statesmen, nor the dreams of the political theorists, but in the laboratories of scientific students whose names are but little in the mouths of men, who cannot themselves forecast the results of their own labors, and whose theories could scarcely be understood by those whom they will chiefly benefit."

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